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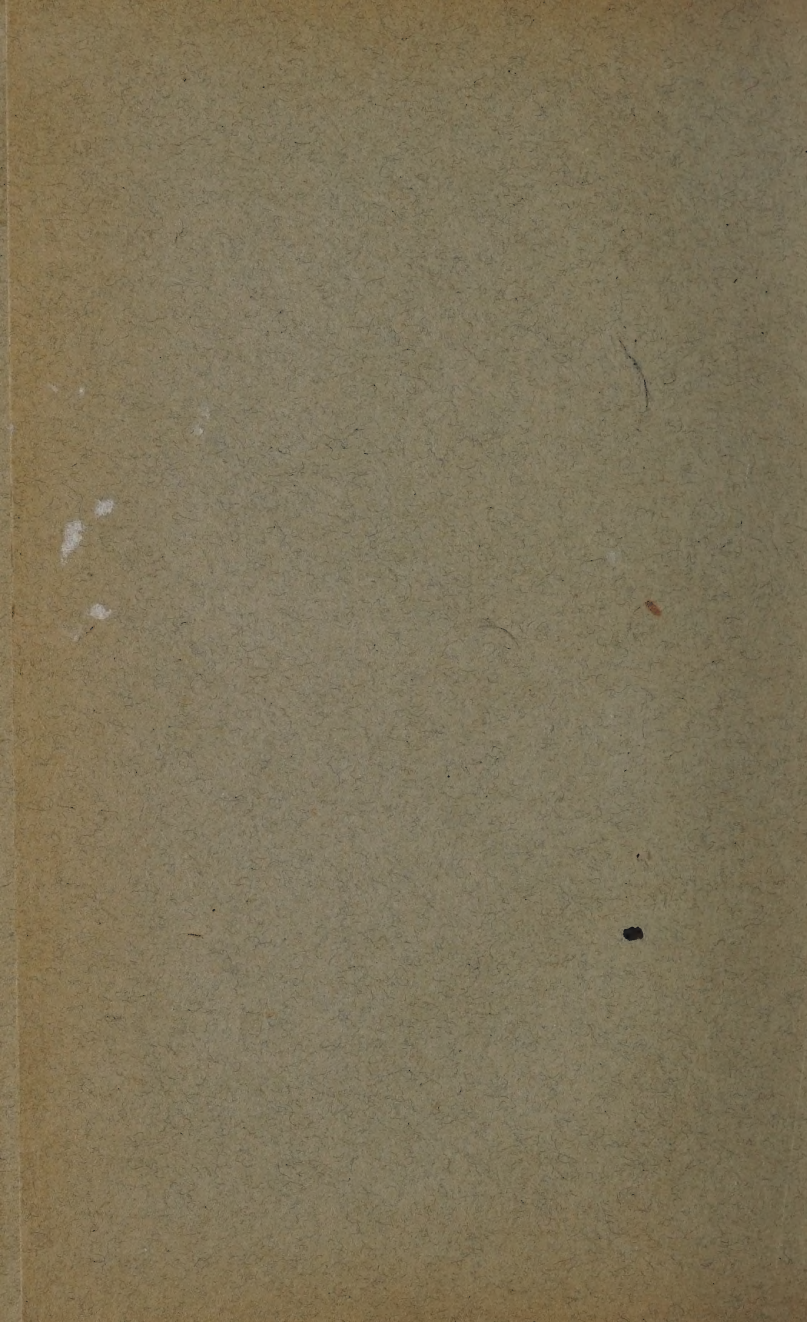
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MAST AND AERIAL CONSTRUCTION FOR AMATEURS

TOGETHER WITH THE METHOD OF
ERECTION AND OTHER USEFUL
INFORMATION

BY

F. J. AINSLEY, ASSOC.M.INST.C.E.

57 ILLUSTRATIONS

Second and Revised Edition



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PREFACE

IN introducing this book the author hopes to assist all those who are interested in the reception of wireless telegraphy and telephony, and wish to construct their own apparatus.

Although it is not essential to possess an outside aerial with every receiving set, yet the majority of amateurs, who are anxious to obtain an efficient installation at minimum expense, will find that by introducing an outside aerial system much expense can be saved, as the apparatus required in the receiving circuit need not be so elaborate to obtain equivalent results.

Many amateurs will, no doubt, be faced with the difficulty of obtaining suitable attachments for the erection of the aerial, and to assist them to overcome these difficulties, various types of masts and methods of erection of the aerial are set out in this book.

In reading through the following pages, the amateur will find that it is possible to supply a long-felt want, at a comparatively low cost, within the compass of his own ability and the use of a few ordinary tools.

When completed, the masts are easily erected. The stays and foundations are fully dealt with, together with everything necessary to complete the aerial system.

Throughout the book simplicity has been the keynote, but there is nothing to prevent the amateur using more elaborate attachments, connections, anchors, etc., providing the necessary strength is maintained.

The amateur should carefully read the general information given in Chapter II., and also the notes relating to the aerial in Chapter V.

Before arranging to attach the aerial to the house it is advisable to consult the landlord, and your insurance company with reference to the fire policy.

F. J. A.

UPMINSTER,
September 30th, 1922.

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MASTS

CHAPTER I

VARIOUS TYPES OF MASTS

THE general principles and design of masts shown in this book offer to the amateur structures that combine strength with simplicity of construction.

With the assistance of the detailed drawings and notes, it is hoped that no trouble will be met which will call for skill beyond that of the ordinary handyman.

The various types shown are graduated in design, so that each individual's requirements can be suited. The simpler forms require few tools, a minimum of craftsmanship and expense.

The cheapest and most easily obtained pole for a wireless mast is a builder's scaffold pole, but beyond a height of about 25 feet this is difficult to obtain locally. However, one can be purchased in the right quarter, up to a height of about 35 feet, but becomes expensive, and the difficulties of transport to the site arise, so that other means may have to be employed to obtain a mast.

One alternative is the stayed lattice mast. This is of simple construction, and works out at roughly a shilling a foot.

The self-supporting mast needs a little more care during construction, but should not be beyond the power of the general handyman, and has the advantage of requiring little ground space.

A more permanent form of mast is shown (Chapter III.), and consists of iron or steel tubes screwed and socketed together; the initial cost of this is somewhat heavy, and the tools required are not generally in the possession of the ordinary individual.

For those who contemplate the erection of a mast of this character, it would be better to place the work out to a plumber or gasfitter, or better, buy one complete (there are several on the market), and only undertake the actual erection themselves.

The height of each of the foregoing types has been made variable within limits, to suit the requirements of each individual, but in most cases, 36 feet in height will be sufficient, and, keeping within this limit, the difficulties of erection are simplified.

The various types are fully illustrated in Chapter IV., so that little more need be said here, beyond advising the amateur to construct his mast according to the scaffold or stayed lattice type, unless a tubular mast is purchased. These types will give him sufficient height, combined with ease and quickness of construction, few tools and minimum expense.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL INFORMATION

The following remarks have been compiled to give the amateur all the information he may require before purchasing material, constructing and erecting a mast for an aerial support. Chapter V., which deals with the aerial, should be read in conjunction with this chapter.

Timber.—The selection of the timber for any of the masts is the most important item to be considered before attempting to build one up.

Yellow deal is the name of the timber required, and it is this class that can be seen stacked in all timber yards.

The particular sections for building the masts are called battens in the timber trade, and for small quantities are sold by the 100-foot run.

The size of timber to be ordered includes the thickness of the saw cut, which is about $\frac{1}{8}$ inch wide, therefore, $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch square battens will only be $1\frac{3}{8}$ inches square when measured.

If you require your battens to be $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches square, you must ask for them to "hold up" (trade term) to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches square. There will correspondingly be a slight increase in price for this.

The actual size for each piece in the masts is given, also the size by which you must order them.

The general specification for timber states that the wood

must be free from sap, shakes, large or loose knots, twists, warps, or waney edges. Timber only holds to these requirements under special prices, but the bulk of cheap timber sold does not vary seriously from the specification requirements.

Sapwood is unseasoned timber. This defect need not be looked for, as the battens will be practically free from this, and even if it existed slightly, it would not be detected by the inexperienced eye.

Shakes.—Cracks or crevices; these are not likely to exist to any extent and are easily seen.

Knots.—Persistently exist, are round or oval, of reddish brown colour; pieces with large or loose knots must be rejected.

Twists and Warps.—Twisted or mis-shapened timber must be guarded against, especially for the leg members. Slight bends in the timber in one plane or direction of an inch in 12 feet can be accepted.

Waney Edges.—Corner bevelled or cut away.

To sum up, the purchaser should ask for good yellow deal, free from large or loose knots, twists or warps, and then reject any pieces that do not suit his requirements. The timber-yard foreman will select your timber and, generally, it will be all you desire.

Do not be too drastic in your specification or you will be charged for "best selected timber."

Strength of Timber.—The common soft woods, among which yellow deal is classed, have a breaking strength when pulled asunder of 1 ton per square inch of area. When compressed they will withstand a similar pressure before collapsing (with short specimens).

The writer had three pieces of average deal, 3 feet 6 inches long by 2 inches by 2 inches section, tested to destruction as a column, and the following loads were registered:—

No. 1 collapsed at 9.4 tons.

No. 2 collapsed at 7.5 „

No. 3 collapsed at 7.1 „

The average breaking load being 8 tons or 4,423 lbs. per square inch of section.

These figures show that the various pieces of timber employed in the construction of the masts are of ample strength.

Bearing Pressure for Earth.—Ordinary soil at a depth of 2 feet will withstand a pressure of at least 1 ton per square foot of area.

The foundations given are, therefore, of ample size, and

there is no need to insert a multitude of bricks, gravel or concrete under the mast base.

When the anchor stakes have been inserted it is advisable to test them.

The average man can pull with a force equal to his own weight ; a 10-stone man can, therefore, pull with a force of 140 lbs. Assuming only 1 cwt. pull, three men can exert a force of 3 cwt.

Each anchor should, therefore, be able to resist three men,

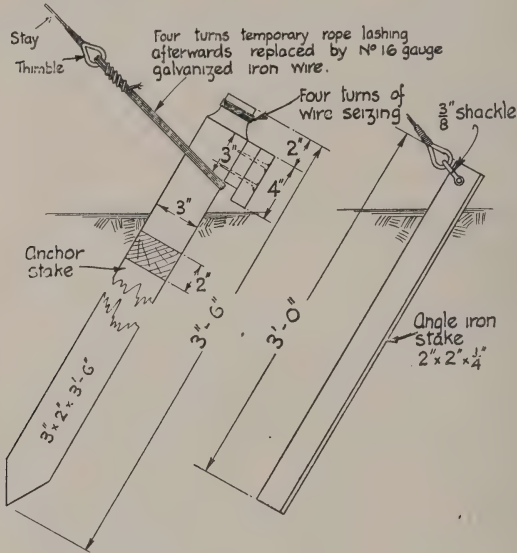


FIG. 1.—Anchor Stakes.

pulling sideways or horizontally, without moving it from the ground ; it will probably move an inch or so at the ground level, but that is immaterial.

Should, however, the soil collapse and allow the stake to come out, the stake must be reinforced. Two short lengths of plank must be fixed across it as shown in Fig. 5, together with two or three bricks, and the soil well rammed, and test applied again.

The average ground or soil is termed hard or soft. Hard ground consists of gravel, stones, chalk, or limestone.

Soft ground, sand, loam, marl, or clay.

In hard ground, angle-iron stakes must be used for the anchors.

Loam is a mixture of clay and sand, and, when near the surface, is similar to garden mould.

Marl is a mixture of clay and stones.

In soft soils, except sand, use wood stakes for the anchors.

Concrete is a mixture of cement, sand and ballast (sharp stones, broken bricks or clinker).

Cement is sold in 200 lb. bags; the sand, by the load or half load, a load being called a yard, *i.e.*, a yard of sand.

Ballast can also be purchased by the yard, but generally sufficient stones, bricks or clinker are to hand. Do not use ashes.

The cement and sand are first thoroughly mixed dry in the proportions, one measure of cement with two measures of sand. Into this mixture add the ballast, three measures, which must not contain any pieces larger than $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches across.

Sprinkle with water, and turn the mass over continually with a shovel.

Add water until the concrete is completely wet throughout, but stiff enough to stand up in a heap. Do not make it too wet so that the sand and cement run out.

With the use of wire netting little or no ballast need be inserted, three measures of sand being used.

The concrete must be mixed on boards, concrete or brick-work, and not on the ground so that earth or soil can mix with it. This is most important.

Directly the concrete is made it must be inserted in the mould, and rammed or puddled down with a stick to free it from air bubbles.

It is better to mix a small quantity at a time, and repeat the process, in order to fill one box, than to make too much and have some left over. This will be useless unless used in another mould at once.

Each mould must be filled up as soon as possible; do not half fill it and add the remainder the next day.

Allow forty-eight hours for the concrete to set, and then remove the box carefully by taking it to pieces. The process is then repeated for the other foundation blocks.

At least ten days must elapse before erecting the mast on the concrete, and preferably fourteen days.

If the weather is cold or frosty, well cover the blocks with

earth and sacking, and never mix your concrete during frosty weather.

The blocks should be exposed to the air in fair weather; water or rain will not injure them.

Wind Pressure.—The duties of the masts are twofold, one to support the aerial, the other to resist the wind pressure. In general practice, for masts of this height in the British Isles, 20 lbs. per square foot is taken for the wind pressure, except where the mast stands on a headland or prominent place.

The skeleton nature of the masts does not give a large wind area, the amount being about 10 lbs. per foot run of the mast, or 360 lbs. for a 36-foot mast. Approximately half of this is resisted by the mast foundation, when using one set of stays.

The four foundation stakes, driven 2 feet, therefore, have ample strength to resist any force that may arise in the horizontal direction (Fig. 20).

The main force exerted at the base of the mast is vertically downwards, due to its weight, and the vertical component of the stays and aerial halyard. These forces are resisted by the bricks. The side force at the base, due to the aerial pull, is practically absorbed by the aerial halyard and stays, and is almost negligible at the mast base.

Stay Anchors.—The amateur will find that fixing the stay anchors will probably be his most difficult task.

Few, possibly, possess a hammer of more than 7 lbs. weight, and, even if one happens to be available, it is no ordinary task to drive a stake in without splitting it. For those who propose to drive their stakes, *i.e.*, timber ones—iron stakes are, of course, driven—it is advisable to trim the top edges, and bind three or four turns of wire round, about an inch down; this prevents splitting (Fig. 1).

In the absence of a heavy hammer, there is nothing for it but to dig a hole and insert the stakes. Undercut the ground, so that the soil against which the stake bears is not disturbed (see Fig. 5). When testing stake, pull against this face.

When filling in again a bucket of water will help the soil to settle, and a further layer of soil and a good ramming will complete the job.

Stays.—The most suitable material for the mast stays is flexible wire rope.

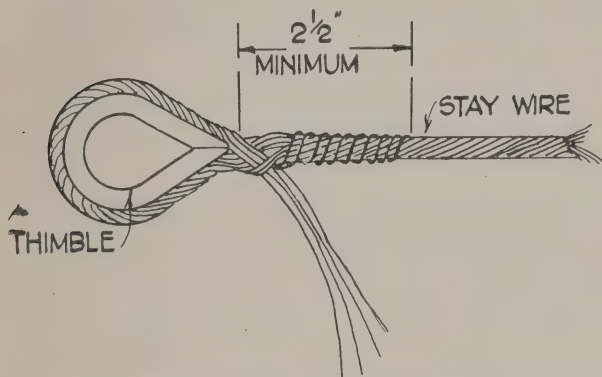
It is not advisable to use hemp rope, as this continually tightens up and slackens with weather conditions, causing the

mast to be heavily stressed at one time, and unstable at another period.

The wire rope sold for ordinary clothes line meets the requirements well; it has ample strength, and is cheap. It is usually sold in 100-foot coils, which cuts up into three stays.

Insulators can be inserted in the stays if required, although they are hardly necessary for receiving stations.

In order to overcome the difficulty of splicing wire ropes, the method shown in Fig. 2 may be used. A sample was



TO AVOID SPLICING, PASS THE STRANDS THROUGH THE WIRE ROPE NEAR THE THIMBLE AND TURN EACH STRAND SEPARATELY ROUND WIRE AS SHOWN. SPREAD THE TURNS OF THE FIRST WIRE OUT SO THAT OTHERS MAY LIE BETWEEN THEM

FIG. 2.—Method of securing Thimble in Stay.

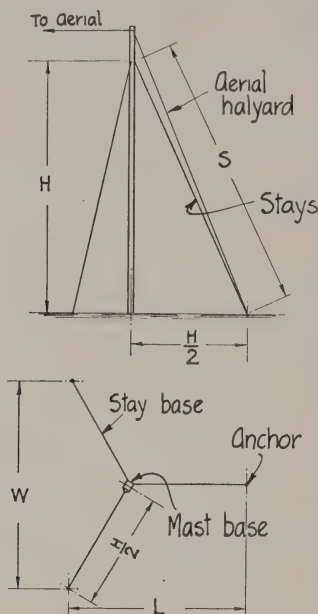
made up by the writer and tested. Failure occurred at the seizing at a tensile stress of 610 lbs. (5.45 cwts.).

This wire is, therefore, of ample strength for masts up to 36 feet.

The above test was carried out with wire rope sold at oil shops or ironmonger's for the ordinary household clothes line. It was 0.43 inches circumference and consisted of six strands, each No. 18 S.W.G.

Ship's chandlers are generally the best people to buy flexible

steel wire rope from, and they can always give you its breaking load, which should not be less than 5 or 6 cwts., although they rarely stock a wire with a breaking load below half a ton.



MAST HEIGHT	STAY HEIGHT	STAY BASE	SITE WIDTH	SITE LENGTH	STAY LENGTH MAST TO ANCHOR
	H	$\frac{H}{2}$	W	L	S
25'-0"	20'-0"	10'-0"	17'-4"	15'-0"	22'-6"
30'-0"	25'-0"	12'-6"	21'-8"	18'-9"	28'-0"
36'-0"	30'-0"	15'-0"	26'-0"	22'-6"	33'-9"
42'-0"	36'-0"	18'-0"	31'-3"	27'-0"	40'-6"

FIG. 3.—Stay diagram.

It may be useful to mention that all ropes are measured by their circumference, and that thimbles for end connections are called by the size of rope for which they are suited. Thus a 1-inch thimble fits a 1-inch circumference rope.

To facilitate handling of the stays during erection, it is advisable to cut them about 2 feet short, and use a 6-foot length of rope lashing at the end. Turnbuckles are not recommended. The stays may then be temporarily attached to their respective anchors and adjusted as required. The lashing is afterwards replaced by No. 16 S.W.G. wire, as shown in Fig. 1.

The various masts shown have three stays, set 120 degrees apart, but where climatic conditions are bad four stays should be used set at 90 degrees apart.

Strength of Wire.—Although the expression “galvanised iron wire” is frequently used, the wire is nearly always made of steel.

The breaking stress for small wires up to $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch diameter is 55,000 lbs. per square inch for iron, and from 70,000 to 90,000 lbs. per square inch for the ordinary qualities of steel.

These figures give a breaking load for No. 16 S.W.G. of 172 lbs. for iron and 223 lbs. for steel. The writer purchased a piece of No. 16 S.W.G. galvanised wire at an ordinary ironmonger's for testing purposes, and the breaking load registered was 210 lbs.

No. 16 S.W.G. wire has been used in the self-supporting mast, as this size is most convenient to handle and gives sufficient strength. In the lower portion of the mast the necessary strength has been obtained by using two strands of No. 16 S.W.G. wire in preference to a wire of larger diameter and strength.

The following table, taken from a standard book, gives various sizes, strength and weight of wire :—

Standard wire gauge. No.		Weight per 100 ft. lbs.		Breaking stress in lbs.	
				Iron.	Steel.
14	..	1.66	..	268	349
15	..	1.33	..	218	284
16	..	1.06	..	172	223
17	..	.80	..	131	170
18	..	.60	..	97	128
19	..	.40	..	67	87
20	..	.33	..	55	72

Site.—When the type and the height of the mast have been decided, it is necessary to consider the place where the mast can be constructed, and left for a period during construction.

The length of space required must be slightly more than the height of the mast.

Generally the garden path will be most suitable, each individual deciding for himself.

Tools.—The minimum tools required are :—

Hammer.	Shifting spanner.
Wood saw.	Pliers.
Screwdriver.	Rule.
Gimlet.	

Other useful tools are a brace with suitable bits, screwdriver

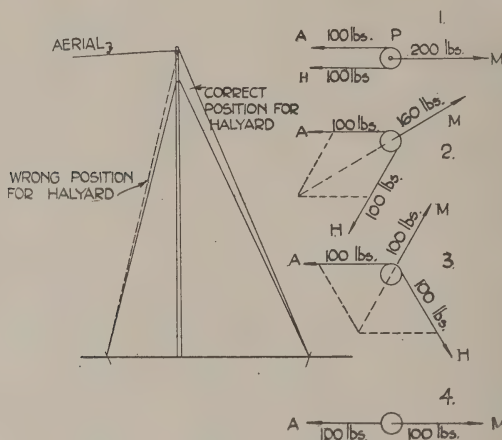


FIG. 4.—Halyard Diagram.

bit, rose bit, square shank drills ($\frac{5}{16}$ -inch, $\frac{3}{16}$ -inch and $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch diameter), and a heavy hammer.

It is a good plan to have a brace, as considerable time is saved in drilling holes and driving the screws, although a gimlet and screwdriver may be used as substitutes.

If no drills are to hand, it is not an expensive item to buy the necessary ones. This should be done, as a more satisfactory job is then made.

Halyards.—The aerial halyards may be of either hemp or wire rope, and of length equal to the height of the aerial attachment.

A spare length of rope is generally attached to the end of

the halyard when it is necessary to lower the aerial, in order to avoid leaving the surplus length of the halyard coiled at the anchor stake.

When the aerial attachment is at a good height, and the halyard consequently long, it is sometimes necessary to have a down haul or a weight attached to the upper end of the halyard beyond the pulley or sheave, as the aerial may not be heavy enough in itself to overcome the weight of the halyard.

With masts supported by stays, the halyard may be brought to one of the anchor stakes (preferably the one furthest away from the aerial), or should an independent anchor stake be employed, it should be in line with the aerial, and on that side

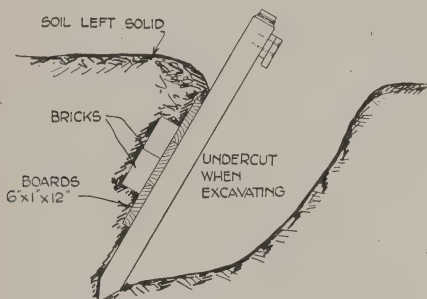


FIG. 5.—Reinforced Anchor Stake.

of the mast away from it. This method reduces the horizontal head pull at the mast head.

Always avoid, if possible, bringing the halyard down the mast, or in front of it under the aerial.

Fig. 4 shows the correct position for the halyard.

Sketches 1, 2, 3, 4, illustrate the forces exerted at the mast head. Page 14.

A pulley, P, has a rope passed round it, and a force of 100 lbs. exerted at both ends. The arrows indicate the direction of the forces.

Let A represent the aerial pull.

Let H represent the halyard pull.

Let M represent the mast head.

Forces A and H are resisted or balanced by force M.

The halyard or force H is moved round in an anti-clockwise

direction, and with each movement the mast force decreases in amount until, in Sketch 4, it equals the aerial pull.

The conditions in Sketch 4 exist when the aerial is fastened direct to the mast and the halyard dispensed with. For general purposes the system in Sketch 3 is the best to employ.

When a pole is used on the roof as an aerial support, always endeavour to take the halyard over the roof away from the aerial.

Note.—When hoisting the aerial by means of the halyard, the final haul should be made by pulling hard with one hand only. This is approximately equal to a 50-lb. pull, and is sufficient for a single wire aerial.

When twin wires with a spreader are used, a little more force may be exerted.

Painting.—For outside woodwork, good red lead paint is always used for a priming coat. It is not sold ready mixed, but any oil and colourman will mix it up for you. However, it is quite simple to make up, and you then know that the right constituents are used. The proportions are :—

1 lb. of white lead (white sticky paste).

$\frac{1}{4}$ lb. of red lead (vermilion powder).

$\frac{1}{2}$ pint boiled linseed oil.

$\frac{1}{2}$ pint turpentine.

The red lead powder is first ground into the white lead paste with an old knife. Do not allow this mixture to enter any cuts or abrasions of the skin in case blood poisoning is set up.

Equal quantities of boiled oil and turps are then added to thin the mixture.

Before putting on this priming coat of red lead paint, all knots should be covered with patent knotting, which can be purchased from any oil and colourman; about an eighth of a pint is sufficient for a mast.

Two coats of ready-mixed paint can then be applied of the desired colour. When the finishing coat is to be white, use very little red lead powder; about a teaspoonful will produce a light pink, as seen on the woodwork of new houses.

Maintenance.—Deterioration and corrosion of a material is due to continual changes of temperature, that is, alternate changes from warm and dry conditions to dampness.

If the material is always dry or always wet, its life is longer.

It is, therefore, natural to expect rotting and decay in wood-

work at the ground level, and a few inches down. For this reason the masts have been designed to stand on brickwork above the ground, so that the foundation posts can easily be renewed when necessary.

An examination of the mast foundations and anchor stakes should be carried out each year. The tar is scraped away at the ground level and for 6 inches down. The exposed wood is then chipped away with a knife or chisel to test its soundness. If it is hard and brittle, as in its original state, it may be left for another year, but should softness or pulp be discovered this must all be cut away, the clean wood exposed, and then well tarred. If this decay extends into the wood $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, the member must be removed and a new piece inserted.

The wood masts will have a life of at least five years, provided they are given a fresh coat of some preserving material at intervals.

Before erection, three coats of paint should be applied, or at least two coats of creosote put on freely.

The mast need not be given another coat for two years, but after that it should be painted or creosoted annually.

The stays and their attachments also need inspection, but being of wire they will easily outlast the mast.

The only point to watch with regard to them is rubbing, chaffing or cutting through at attachments.

Gas Barrel.—For a wireless mast the most suitable tubing is gas barrel. It can be purchased from a general ironmonger's or builders' merchant, although it is the better plan to order it through a plumber or gas-fitter, as they can cut it to length, screw and attach the necessary fittings.

Pipes of this character are measured by their inside diameter or bore. Thus a 2-inch gas pipe has an internal diameter of 2 inches, and all fittings for this particular pipe are called 2-inch gas, *i.e.*, nut for 2-inch gas pipe, socket for 2-inch gas pipe, etc. The threads are also termed 2-inch gas.

The following table gives the size of various tubes :—

Bore of tube. Ins.		Outside diameter to nearest $\frac{1}{16}$ in. Ins.		Threads per in.
I	..	$I\frac{5}{16}$..	II
$I\frac{1}{4}$..	$I\frac{9}{16}$..	II
$I\frac{1}{2}$..	$I\frac{7}{8}$..	II
$I\frac{3}{4}$..	$2\frac{1}{8}$..	II
2	..	$2\frac{3}{8}$..	II

CHAPTER III

SCAFFOLD POLE MASTS

SCAFFOLD poles can be obtained from any builders' merchant and sometimes from a local builder, but in the latter case they may be fairly old and not very long, so that it is a better plan to go to a builders' merchant and obtain a new one.

Ordinary scaffold poles range from 20 to 28 feet in length, although it is possible to obtain them up to 40 feet. New poles can easily be detected by having the bark practically intact. Old poles are generally minus the bark, and of a greyish colour.

At the butt they measure about $4\frac{1}{2}$ -inch diameter, and taper to $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch diameter at the top. No pole should be selected under these dimensions when exceeding 25 feet in height.

Thirty to thirty-five-foot poles should be 5-inch diameter butt and 3-inch diameter top.

Beyond thirty-five-foot poles, 6-inch and 3-inch diameter.

Before erecting one the bark should be scraped off, and the pole either painted or given a coat of creosote. The butt must be well tarred for at least a foot above the ground.

Fig. 6 illustrates the general arrangement of a scaffold pole mast complete. It is supported by three stays, set 120 degrees apart, and the butt buried 3 feet in the ground.

The aerial sheave at the head of the pole may be let in, as shown, and should be 3-inch diameter, the recess being wide enough to just admit it, thus leaving no space for the aerial halyard to ride off the sheave, and jam.

The mast cap serves two purposes : it prevents the weather affecting the top of the pole and braces the split end together.

A mast truck can be purchased, but an ordinary piece of wood will suffice.

Room must be left between the sheave and cap to allow the end of the halyard with a thimble spliced in to pass.

The stays are attached, 1 foot down the pole, by taking two or three turns round with the wire and seizing the end back on itself.

A wedge can be inserted, if necessary, to tighten the strands.

Fig. 6 also shows an alternative arrangement for the base, one advantage being, 3 feet of length is saved and given to the height for the same pole.

The housing consists of boards 1 inch thick, with internal dimensions equal to the diameter of the butt.

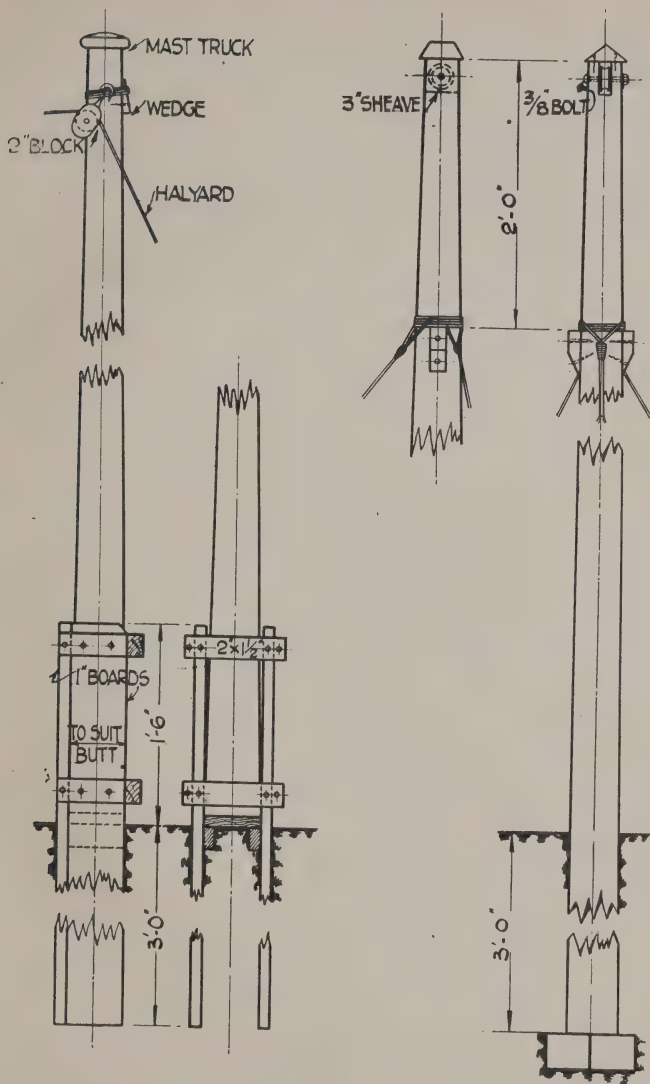


FIG. 6.—Scaffold Pole Mast.

One face of the housing is left open, so that the pole may be raised up in the housing, and two wood bars are then secured across it.

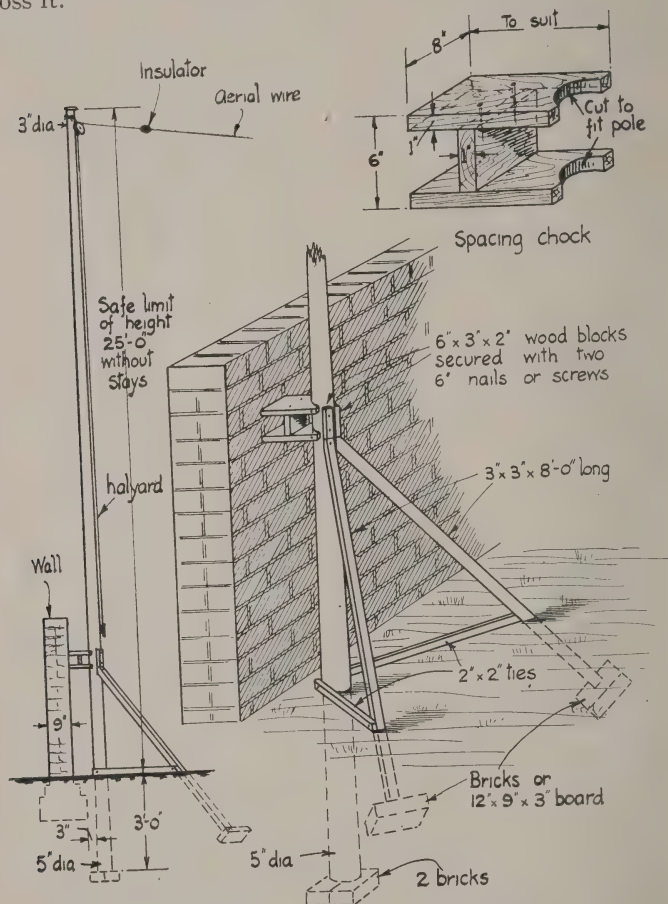


FIG. 7.—Mast erected near a Wall or Fence.

Sometimes a bolt is used in the housing as a hinge on which to raise the pole; in this case, a wedge or packing must be inserted under the butt to take the weight of the pole.

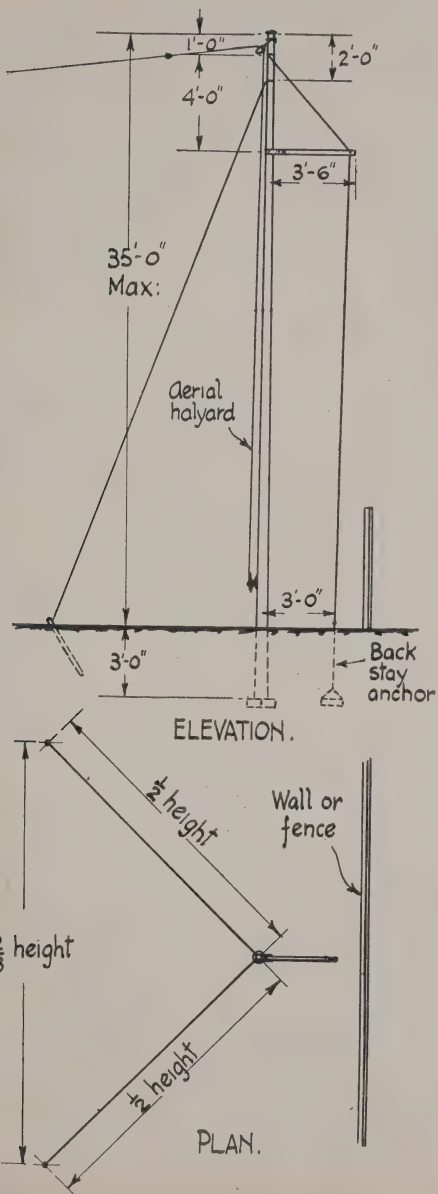


FIG 8 — Mast near Fence, with Back Stay. See also Fig. 11.

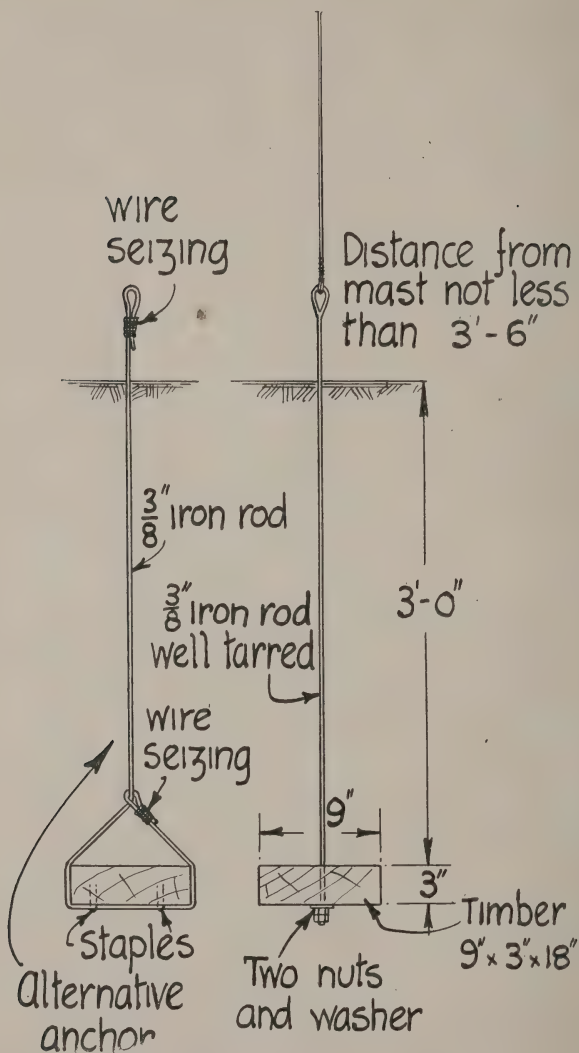


FIG. 9.—Back Stay Anchor.

An alternative arrangement is shown for attaching the halyard block. Note the use of a wedge for the seizing.

The erection of a scaffold pole mast with stays is not always convenient owing to lack of space; a few feet of ground, however, may be saved and added to the length of the aerial wire, by erecting the mast near the limit of space available.

Fig. 7 illustrates a method for erecting a pole near a garden

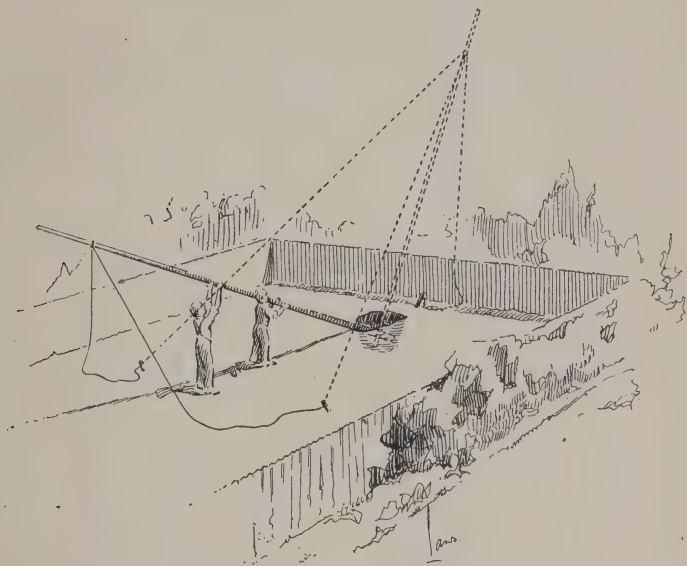


FIG. 10.—Method of Erection. See also Fig. 15.

fence. The base is buried 3 feet in the ground, and the pole supported by two timber struts, 3 inches by 3 inches section, resting against chocks on the mast, and either bricks or a piece of timber buried in the ground. The base of the pole and struts may be tied together by means of two pieces of timber, 2 inches by 2 inches, secured with nails.

An alternative method shows the use of a back stay strut. This, however, depends on the anchor for its strength (Figs. 8 and 9), which should be well buried and rammed in.

The two arrangements shown in Figs. 7 and 8 avoid interfering with the fence or wall, and thus friction with a third party is avoided.

Method of Erection.—The pole should be given two coats of some preservative substance before erection, and the necessary stays and halyard block, with halyard reeved, attached, after which drive the anchor stakes and prepare the foundation hole. Rest the butt of the pole over the foundation, so that it slides into the hole as the pole is raised. Fig. 10 shows the general method for raising a scaffold pole mast, which is

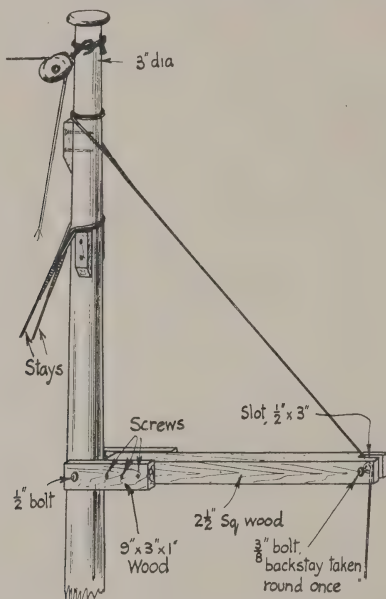


FIG. 11.—Back Stay Strut.

self-explanatory. The erection can be carried out by three men; two will be required to hold the pole when it has been raised, while the third one attends to the stays.

When timber struts are used at the base, and stays dispensed with, it is advisable to use check stays during erection.

They should be connected to the pole about 10 feet from the base to facilitate removal afterwards. Place one stay anchor on either side of the pole parallel to the fence, while a third one is placed at right angles to prevent the pole disappearing over the fence when it is vertical. A 30-foot pole

looks harmless on the ground, but it is a different proposition when raised on end.

TUBULAR MAST

The complete arrangement for a tubular mast is shown in Fig. 12; other information required is contained in Chapter II.

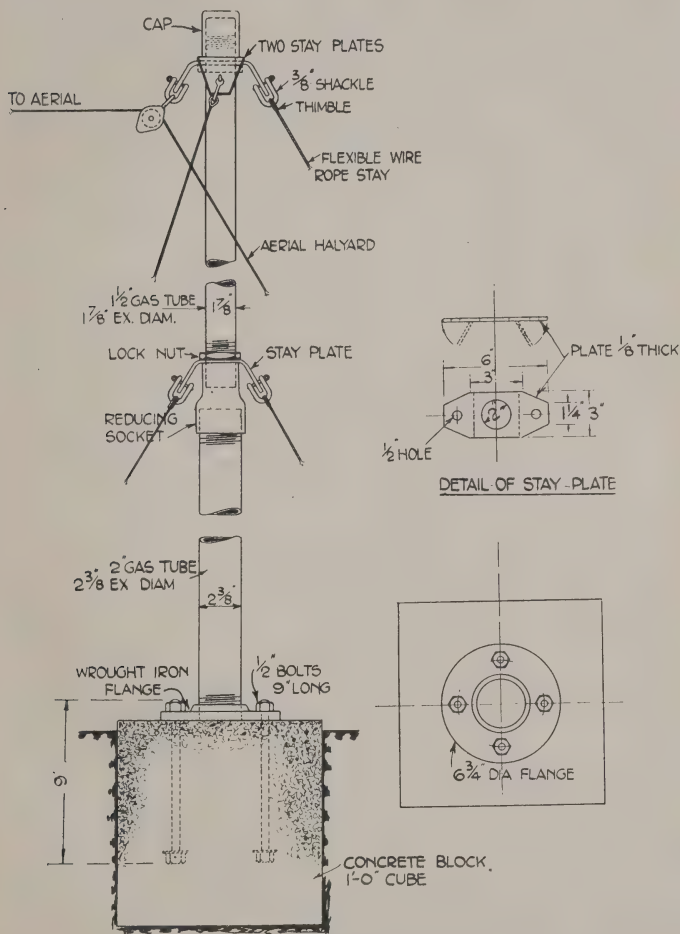


FIG. 12.—Tubular Mast Details.

The overall height of 30 feet is divided into two lengths, 16 feet and 14 feet respectively, by the stays.

The mast is made up of standard gas barrel and fittings, except the stay plate, which is shown in detail.

The lower portion of the mast consists of 2-inch gas barrel, 16 feet long, both ends being screwed 2-inch Whitworth standard gas thread.

The lower end is screwed into a standard flange for 2-inch gas and, at the upper end, a reducing socket, 2-inch to $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch gas, is fitted. Into this socket a 14-foot length of $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch gas barrel is screwed, with stay plate and lock nut attached. The size of the lock nut is $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch gas.

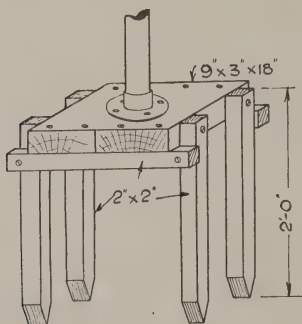


FIG. 13.—Timber Base.

At the upper end of the $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch gas barrel a lock nut is fitted, upon which two stay plates rest, the mast cap securing them.

The stays are connected at the upper end by means of $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch shackles, and also the aerial pulley, which is of galvanised iron.

The stay anchors are shown in Fig. 1.

The length of stay between attachments is 33 feet 6 inches and 22 feet respectively, neglecting the amount of wire required for splicing and securing to the anchor stakes at the base.

If insulators are inserted, the stays must be cut accordingly for their insertion. The paragraph on stays in Chapter II. should be read. Stretching screws may be used, but they must not be tightened up too severely.

The mast base may consist of either timber or concrete, as shown in Figs. 12 and 13.

Possibly many amateurs will require a mast of greater height; in which case, a 12-foot length of $1\frac{1}{4}$ -inch gas barrel may be connected to the upper end of the 30-foot mast by means of a reducing socket, and another set of stays attached.

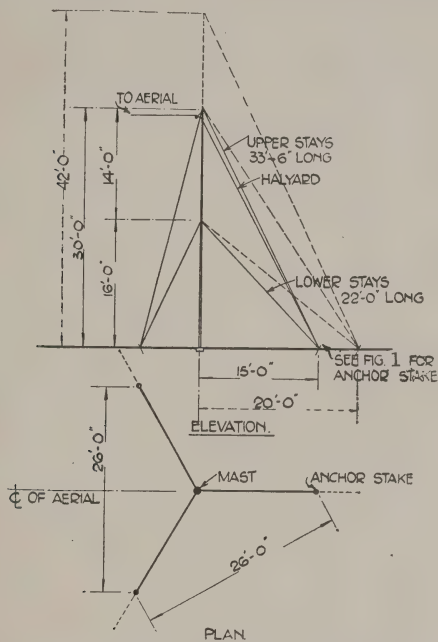


FIG. 14.—General Arrangement of Tubular Mast.

Erection.—The mast should be given a coat of paint before erection.

The method employed for erection is similar to that described for the other types of masts, only greater care is necessary, owing to its slenderness.

Place the base of the mast near the foundation, and raise the tube to an angle of 30 degrees from the ground. It may be propped up in this position while the stays are attended to.

The lower set of stays are then used as the main hoisting ropes, the upper stays being held taut to support the mast head.

Masts of this type can be purchased complete, and vary only as regards details.

The tubes are socketed into each other and secured with pins driven in with a hammer.

Anchor stakes, stays, stretching screws, etc., are supplied, the whole forming a robust and reliable mast.

CHAPTER IV

STAYED LATTICE MAST

THE general design and details for this mast are shown in the accompanying drawings, which are self-explanatory.

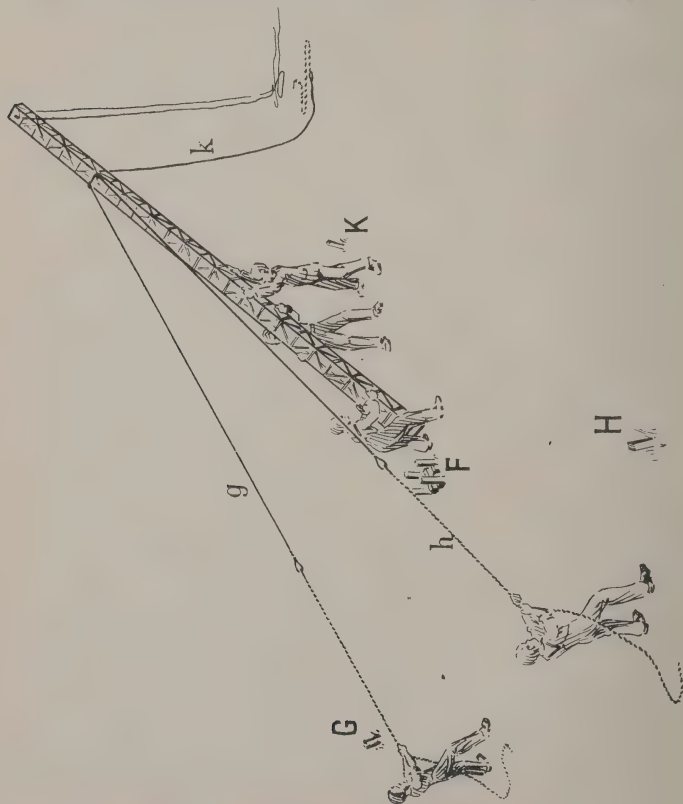


FIG. 15.—Method of Erection for the Various Masts.

The structure is of lattice work, 36 feet overall in height, with a 12-inch square section, and consists of four leg members, set at the corners of a square, braced together with horizontal and diagonal members on each side face. It is made in three sections.

The whole structure is supported on its foundation by means of three wire rope stays suitably attached, and an aerial halyard is reeved through a pulley attached at the head of the mast.

This type of mast requires a certain amount of ground space for the stays, which is shown in Chapter II. Where possible, these dimensions should be adhered to, but a variation not exceeding 1 foot may be made in any one of them.

The construction can proceed directly the height has been decided upon, and timber purchased according to Table of Quantities, page 34.

Erection of Mast. — Although the mast can be raised into the vertical position in a few minutes, it is not advisable to do so unless you have two or three hours to spare in which to devote to the mast after it is up.

The anchor stakes are first driven in, and the foundation made up. Six or eight bricks are buried

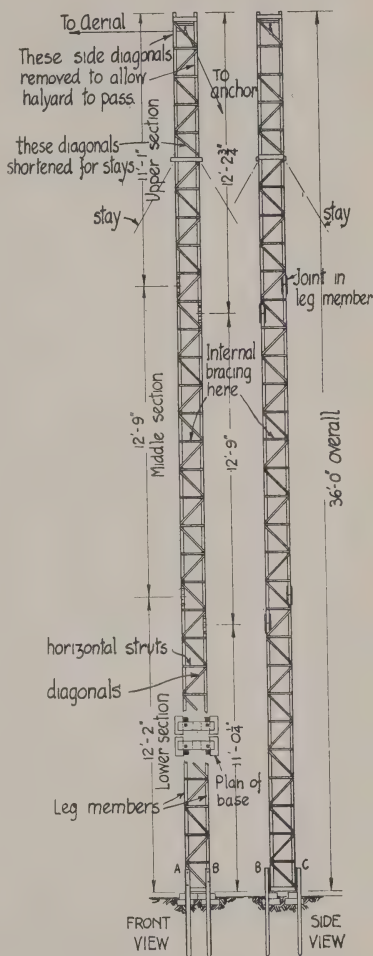


FIG. 16.—General Arrangement.

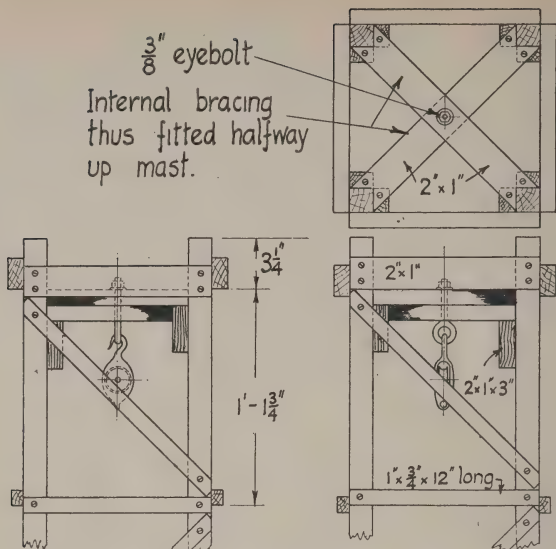


FIG. 17.—Detail at Head.

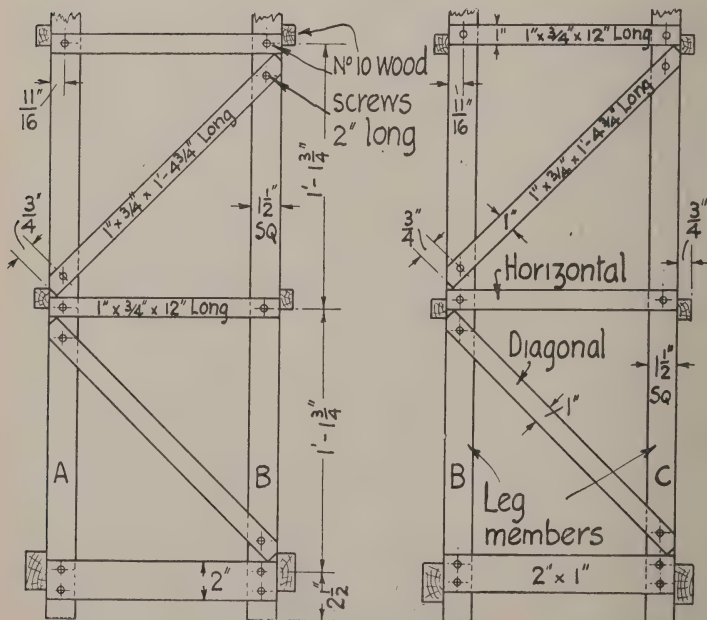
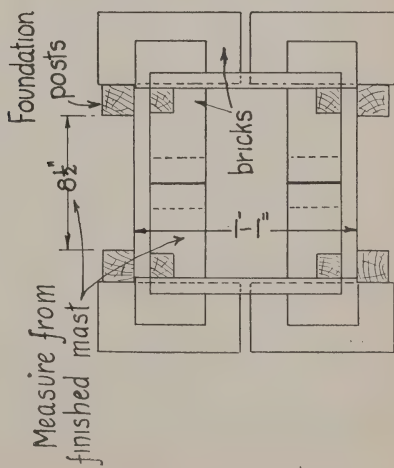
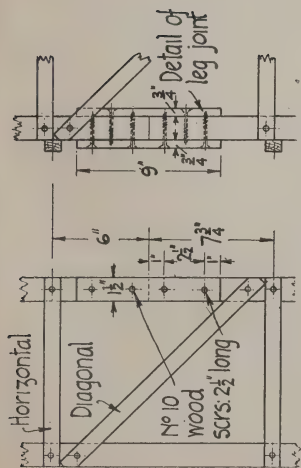
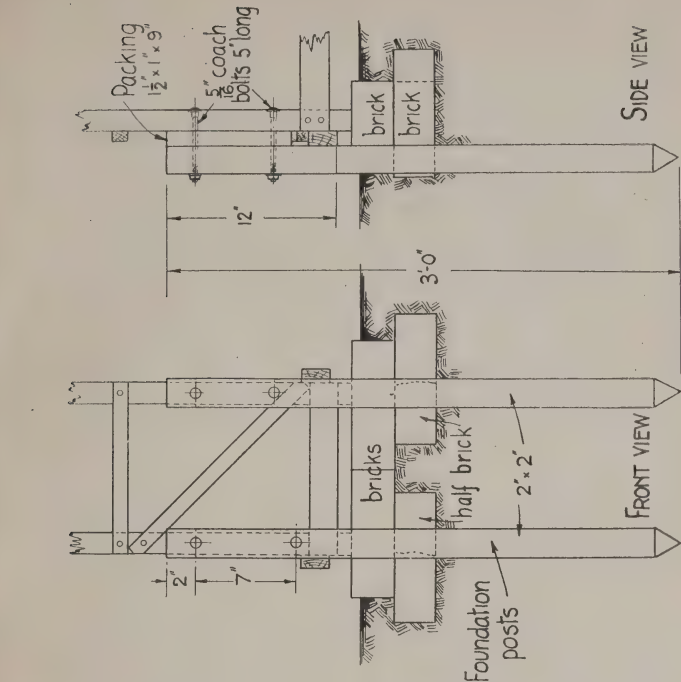


FIG. 18.—Detail at Base.



just below the surface of the ground, and four more are placed above these to receive the four mast legs (Fig. 20).

The foundation stakes are then drilled and driven in, the distance between them being the same as the mast base, approximately 1 foot 1 inch and $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches, as shown in Fig. 21.

The mast will be raised in one direction according to space available, but the width of 1 foot 1 inch should be in line with the aerial.

The base of the mast is then placed near the foundation, not on it, in such a way that the aerial pulley and halyard will be the correct way round when the mast is up.

Take each stay to their respective anchors (Fig. 15) and see that aerial halyard is fitted.

Two men raise the head of the mast, one man stands at the base, and two other men take a stay each (Fig. 15). The corner of the base on which the mast swings up rests on the soil in front of the bricks, so that when vertical the mast stands on the ground and not half on and half off the bricks.

The two men raising the mast walk towards the base, lifting it above their heads as they go. When the masthead is about 10 feet clear of the ground the two stay men help to haul it up. When nearly vertical one of the mast men goes to the back stay to check the mast. The position is now, two men at mast base and one man on each of the three stays. The stays are now temporarily secured to the anchor stakes, not quite taut, and the mast is lifted on to its foundation bricks, and set between the foundation posts; it is then sighted with some distant object for the vertical, such as the side of a house, and the stays made taut. The foundation bricks being levelled up or wedges driven in as required.

The mast legs must now be drilled to correspond to the bolt holes in the foundation stakes, and the whole bolted up (Fig. 20).

The use of lashing at the lower end of the stays is only a temporary measure. It is easy to handle, and the wire is not twisted or kinked with the various adjustments of the stays.

It will be found that the stays stretch slightly, also the rope lashing, and that the mast will settle down on its foundation; all this causing the stays to slacken. It is, therefore, necessary to adjust them once or twice at first, and during the next day, after which the rope lashing can be replaced by wire and a lower insulator inserted if desired.

After the mast has been erected it will appear much longer

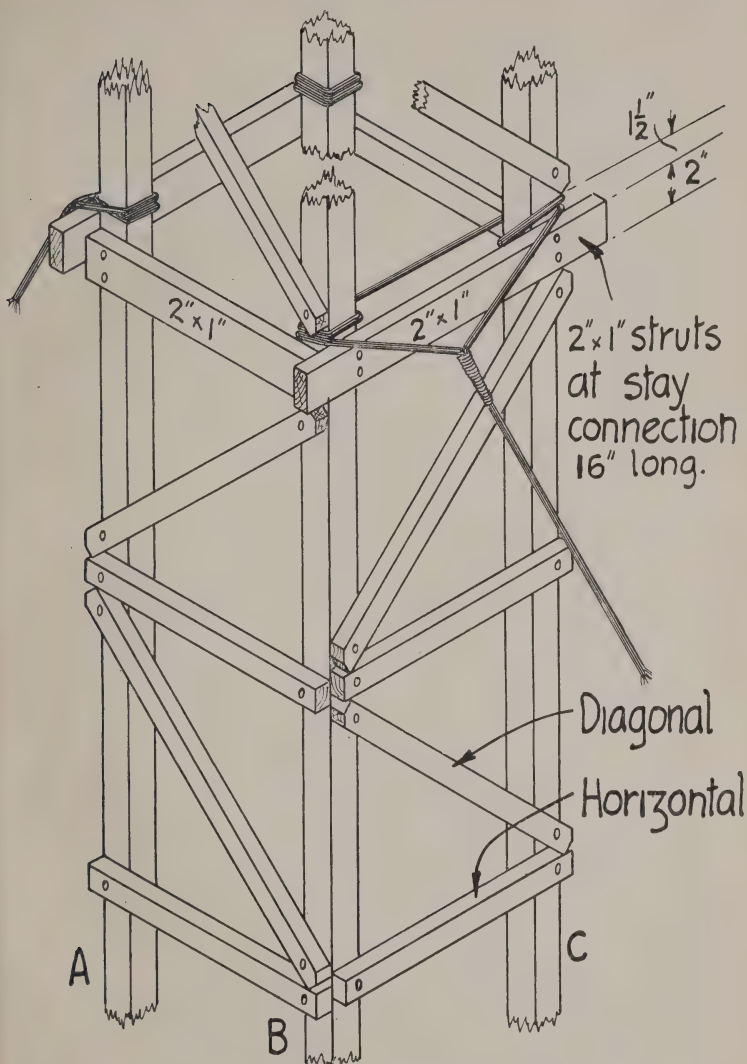


FIG. 22.—Isometric View at Stay Connection.

TABLE OF QUANTITIES. STAYED LATICE MAST, 36 FEET HIGH.

Description.	Number required.	Size of Timber.		Feet run ordered.	Remarks.
		Ordered.	Received.		
Leg members, A, B, C, D.	12 lengths.	Inches. $1\frac{1}{2}$ square.	Inches. $1\frac{3}{8}$ square.	150	Cut as drawn.
Struts	116 pieces	Hold up to			
Diagonals	124 "	$1 \times \frac{3}{4}$	$1 \times \frac{3}{4}$	300	" "
Stout struts	12 "	2×1	$1\frac{7}{8} \times \frac{1}{2}$	12	" "
Internal bracing	4 "	2×1	$1\frac{3}{8} \times \frac{1}{2}$	6	" "
Anchor stakes	3 "	3×2	$2\frac{3}{4} \times 1\frac{7}{8}$	11	" "
Foundation posts	4 "	—	—	12	Use clamp posts when finished with.
Foundation packing	4 "	2×1	$1\frac{7}{8} \times \frac{7}{8}$	4	Cut as drawn.
Clamp posts	4 "	2 square.	$1\frac{7}{8}$ square.	12	" "
Clamp members	6 "	$1\frac{1}{2}$ square.	$1\frac{3}{8}$ square.	12	No. 10 gauge, 2 inches long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ gross.
Iron wood-screws	480	—	—	—	Six strands No. 18 gauge wire.
Stays, flexible wire rope	100 feet.	—	—	—	
Halyard	Height of mast (independent of structure).	—	—	—	Galvanised iron.
Aerial pulley	1	—	—	—	With nut and washer.
Aerial eye bolt	1	—	—	—	$1\frac{5}{8}$ inch diameter coach-bolts, with nut and washer, 5 inches long.
Foundation bolts	8	—	—	—	One gallon.
Creosote	—	—	—	—	

Approximate cost of material 30/-.

than it did when lying on the ground, and may give rise to anxiety for the owner, but, providing the anchor stakes are as

shown in Fig. 1 and the stays of wire rope as specified, no fear need be felt for its stability.

SELF-SUPPORTING MAST

THIS type of mast meets the requirements of amateurs who are limited to space for the stays.

The general arrangement of the structure is shown in Fig. 23, and consists of four leg members, horizontally braced with wood struts, and tied diagonally with galvanised wire, the whole tapering from the base to the head of the mast.

The design is arranged for two different heights, 35 feet and 28 feet 6 inches respectively.

The reduction in height is obtained by omitting the two lower bays from the design shown for the 35-foot mast.

The mast foundations are shown in both concrete and timber to suit personal requirements, also a suitable arrangement is shown for the aerial attachment.

All information with regard to the material required for the construction of this mast is given in Chapter II. The necessary quantities of material are given in Table (page 40).

The mast is constructed in three sections, the lengths being 11 feet, 12 feet 11 inches, and 11 feet 1 inch.

The table of quantities gives the length and sizes of the various members, and Fig. 24 shows the method of connecting the wire ties.

In bays *a* to *e* the wire ties are double, i.e., two strands of No. 16 gauge wire, in bays *e* to *o* the ties consist of a single strand.

Erection.—The mast is placed in

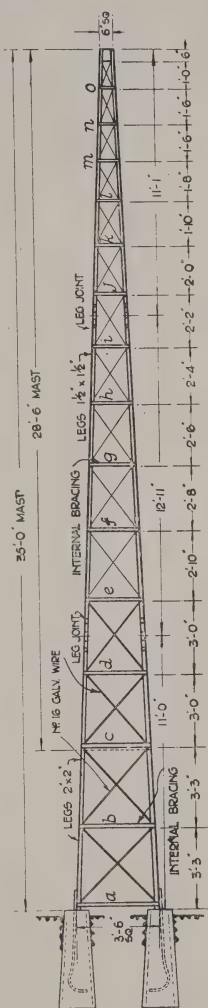


FIG. 23.—General Arrangement Self-supporting Mast.

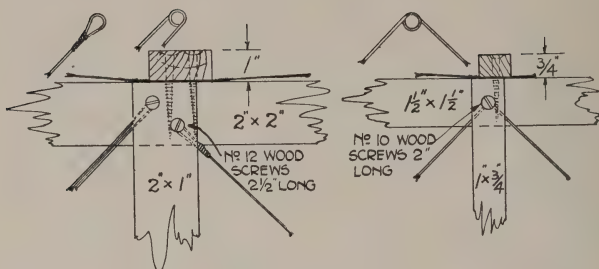


FIG. 24.—Bracing details.

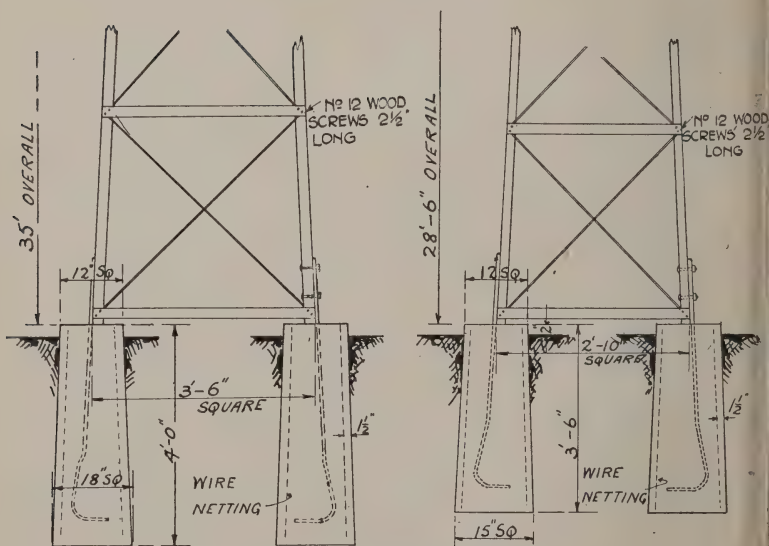


FIG. 25.—Foundation, concrete.

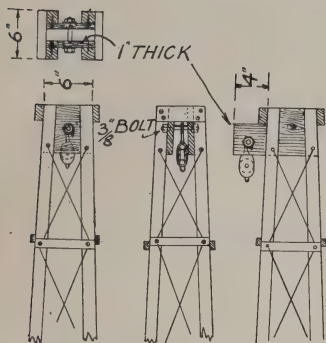


FIG. 26.—Mast head.

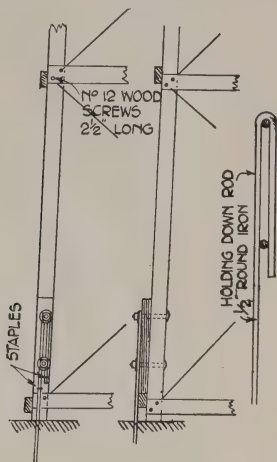


FIG. 27.—Base detail.

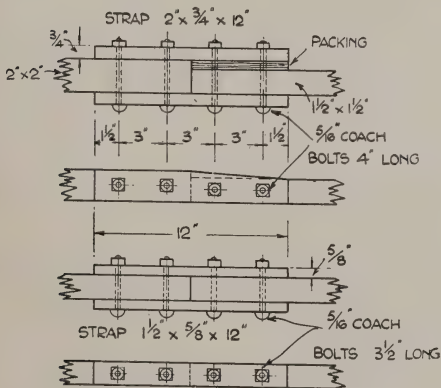


FIG. 28.—Leg member joints.

position, with its base near the foundation, and three guy ropes attached about two-thirds up the mast.

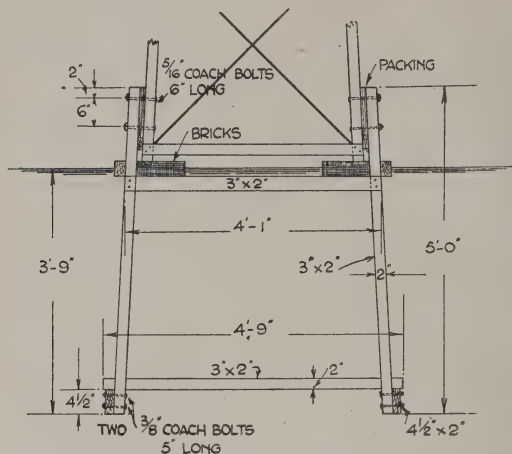


FIG. 29.—Timber foundation.

The erection is carried out in a similar manner to that given for the stayed lattice type (page 29), see also Fig. 15.

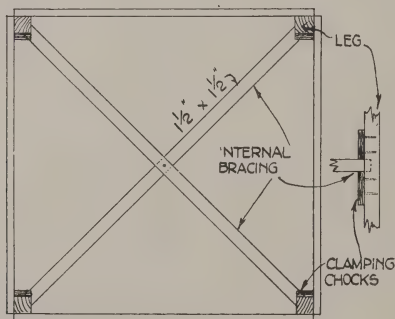


FIG. 30.—Internal bracing (see Fig. 23).

When the mast is vertical secure the stays to temporary anchor stakes or other suitable objects (it will practically stand alone if there is no wind). The mast can then be lifted on to

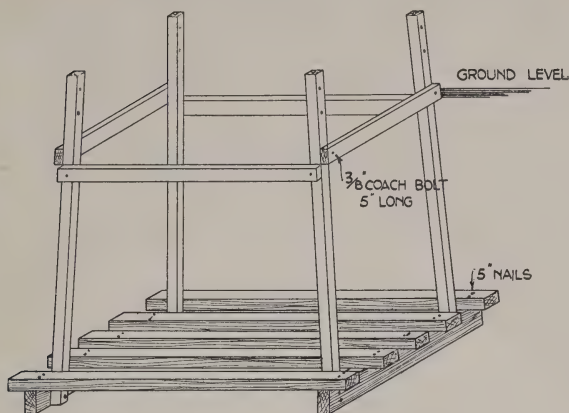


FIG. 31.—Timber foundation.

its foundation and tested for the perpendicular with the side of a house or other vertical object. Wedges are inserted under the leg members as required and the holes drilled for the securing bolts in the leg members.

Should the size and height of the mast cause the owner

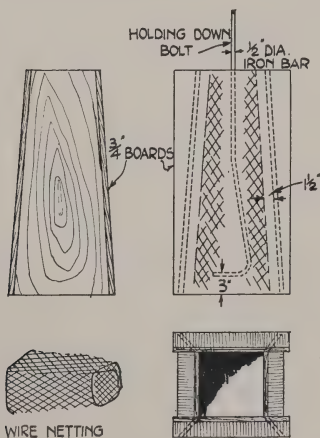


FIG. 32.—Concrete mould, showing wire netting reinforcement.

nervousness, the temporary guys can be left secured for a few days until greater confidence in the stability of the mast is obtained.

QUANTITIES FOR 35-FOOT SELF-SUPPORTING MAST

Description.	Number Required.	Length.	Size of Timber.		Feet run Ordered.	Remarks.
			Ordered.	Received.		
		ft. in.	Inches.	Inches.		
Leg member	4	11 0	2 × 2	1 7/8 × 1 7/8	50	}
" " " "	4	12 11	1 1/2 × 1 1/2	1 3/8 × 1 3/8	100	
" " " "	4	11 1	1 1/2 × 1 1/2	1 3/8 × 1 3/8		
Horizontal struts :						
(a)	4	3 6	2 × 1	1 7/8 × 7/8	}	Lengths suitable for cutting up without waste.
(b)	4	3 2 1/2	2 × 1	1 7/8 × 7/8		
(c)	4	2 11	2 × 1	1 7/8 × 7/8		
(d)	4	2 8	2 × 1	1 7/8 × 7/8		
(e)	4	2 5	2 × 1	1 7/8 × 7/8		
(f)	4	2 2	1 1/2 × 1	1 3/8 × 7/8	}	25
(g)	4	1 11	1 1/2 × 1	1 3/8 × 7/8		
(h)	4	1 8 1/2	1 1/2 × 1	1 3/8 × 7/8		
(i)	4	1 6	1 1/2 × 3/4	1 3/8 × 3/4	}	18
(j)	4	1 4	1 1/2 × 3/4	1 3/8 × 3/4		
(k)	4	1 2	1 1/2 × 3/4	1 3/8 × 3/4		
(l)	4	1 0	1 × 3/4	1 × 3/4	}	15
(m)	4	0 10 1/2	1 × 3/4	1 × 3/4		
(n)	4	0 9	1 × 3/4	1 × 3/4		
(o)	4	0 7 1/2	1 × 3/4	1 × 3/4		
Internal bracing	—	—	1 1/2 × 1 1/2	1 3/8 × 1 3/8	16	
Halyard support	—	1 0	6 × 1	board.	1	
Wood-screws, iron. 1 gross	1 gross	0 2 1/2	No. 12.			
" " " " iron. 1 gross	1 gross	0 2	No. 10.			
Coach-bolts.	16	5/16 × 4	with nut and washer			Leg joint.
" " " "	16	5/16 × 3 1/2	"	"		" " "
" " " "	16	3/8 × 5	"	"		Foundation
" " " "	8	5/16 × 6	"	"		Mast bases.
Wire	500 ft.	No. 16 S.W.G. galvanised steel wire.				
Timber foundation	4	5 0	3 × 2	2 7/8 × 1 7/8	20	
" " " "	4	4 2	3 × 2	2 7/8 × 1 7/8	17	
" " " "	2	5 0	4 1/2 × 2	4 3/8 × 1 7/8	10	
" " " "	5	4 9	3 × 2	2 7/8 × 1 7/8	24	

Approximate cost of material, 40/-.

CHAPTER V

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF AERIAL AND EARTH SYSTEM

THE general principles of the aerial and earth system discussed here apply to crystal and single-valve receiving sets which are being employed at the limits of their range for audible reception.

This is taken to be approximately fifteen and thirty miles respectively for crystal and valve receivers; greater distances, however, have been covered, but for general utility and loud signals the above figures are a fair limit. When an indifferent aerial and earth are employed the above limits of range should be halved.

It cannot be too deeply impressed upon the new adherent to wireless reception that a good aerial and earth are half the secret of success. Every book dealing with the subject advocates this; it is the aim here to show their construction.

A good aerial must be high, the wire efficiently insulated, directional, and have a good leading-in wire.

The ideal aerial is a single vertical wire; this is not often possible, so the aerial wire is bent in a horizontal direction after a certain height has been reached.

The expression height means the clear space between the aerial wire and the nearest object of size immediately beneath it, for instance, a roof aerial 10 feet above the roof, which is 30 feet high, is not 40 feet high, but approximately 10 feet high.

The aerial system should, of course, be placed on elevated ground, but its height is only its distance above the ground.

To obtain height one must employ a suitable mast, should other attachments be lacking. The height to aim at for ordinary broadcast reception is 30 feet.

It is interesting to note that the Post Office authorities, recognising the necessity for height, allow in their regulations a maximum height of 100 feet, this, of course, would be a single vertical wire.

The question of aerial insulation is dealt with in Chapter VI. It is advisable to place two or three insulators in series at the ends of each wire so that leakage is reduced to a minimum.

The direction in which the aerial is placed has an influence over the strength of signals received.

The aerial wire should be in a line pointing towards the transmitting station, with the leading-in end the nearer.

When one end of the aerial is attached to the house the leading-in wire should be kept well away from the structure,

and brought to the leading-in insulator at an angle, and thence to the receiving set as soon as possible.

At the point where the leading-in wire or down-lead joins the aerial, the near end insulator should be fitted.

The aerial wire may consist of silicon-bronze, copper or iron wire. The main consideration is low resistance and large surface area. Silicon-bronze has the least resistance, but copper is generally used for cheapness. The size should not be less than $7/22$ when stranded, or No. 16 S.W.G. for solid wire. A slightly larger size being preferable, $7/20$ and No. 14. The insulated wire for an indoor aerial could be electric light wire; three strands of No. 20 is a common size or stout flex.

The expression "First catch your hare" might with advantage be converted to "First catch your signal or wireless wave." To do this a good aerial is essential.

EARTH SYSTEM

The next consideration is what constitutes a good earth.

The water pipe so frequently used is no doubt the most practical device, but its success may be marred by carelessness. A detailed description of the earth connection is given on page 51. The ideal earth from an electrical point of view is a buried metal plate or some tin boxes, the more the merrier, each box having its individual wire.

About 12 feet of galvanised wire netting may be used as a temporary earth if it is laid on the ground and pegged flat. Three or four strands of copper wire No. 16 S.W.G., inserted in the earth about 6 inches, make a good earth; they may be placed either side of the garden path, or along the edge of a flower bed or lawn by making an aperture with the point of a spade, and pushing them in with a blunt instrument, taking care they are not cut in half.

Two wires 50 feet long, four 25 feet long, or six pieces each 12 feet, are ample. Spread them out to cover as much area as possible, but they may be brought together as the lead-in is approached. It will be found convenient to join them to a terminal, and lead only one or two wires to the receiver.

The actual earth lead-in may come out of the ground, and be attached anywhere on its way to the instrument except, of course, to the aerial wire, but endeavour to make its path from actual ground to instrument as short as possible. Connection for earth to a gutter pipe, manhole cover, or other metal handy not well connected with the earth must be avoided.

There is no objection to making two or three different earth connections, but clean and solder each one.

A good aerial and earth are necessary in a receiving set. Many amateurs think only in valves; these, of course, if added regardless of expense and upkeep, will give signals without either an outside aerial or earth, but for those who wish to keep within reasonable limits and run their set at its maximum efficiency with a minimum of expense, the aerial and earth must be seriously considered. One final word: make a sound job of both when first constructing them, so that the whole of your attention may afterwards be given to experimenting with the receiver.

The essential factors in a good aerial and earth are given below in their order of merit, as it is not always possible to comply with each.

AERIAL

1. *Good Insulation*.—Two or three large insulators in series at all supports.
2. *Direction*.—The leading-in end pointing towards the transmitting station.
3. *Height*.—Above surrounding objects and away from trees, buildings and metal structures. *N.B.*—Trees mean woods or forests.

EARTH

1. Buried earth plate and short lead-in.
2. Water pipe to ground.
3. Water pipe to cistern.
4. Surface wires or netting.

The various forms of indoor aerial described towards the end of Chapter VI. must be decided upon by experiment, as no hard and fast rules can be laid down as regards them.

The following table gives a rough guide for the various types of aerials:—

Receiver.	Type of Aerial.	Height.	Distance audible reception.
Crystal.	Indoor.	—	2 miles.
„	Outdoor.	18 to 24 feet.	10 „
„	„	30 to 35 feet.	18 „
Single-Valve.	Indoor.	—	6 miles.
„	Outdoor.	18 to 24 feet.	18 miles.
„	„	30 to 35 feet.	30 „

CHAPTER VI

THE AERIAL AND EARTH SYSTEM

THE earlier chapters deal with one form of aerial support, namely, masts.

In this portion other suitable means are described.

The ideal conditions for an aerial system are, no doubt, ample ground space and two masts; but the first condition is not always available, and the house itself, which generally contains the receiving apparatus, is too tempting to be ignored as an aerial support in the place of one mast.

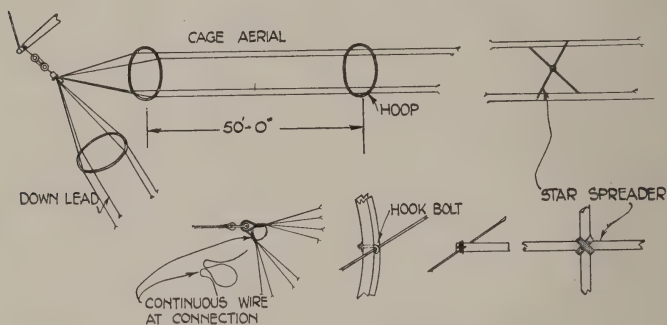


FIG. 33.—Cage Aerial and Details.

The aerial usually takes the form of copper or silicon-bronze, single or stranded wires, suitably suspended in the air, either horizontally, vertically, or a combination of both arrangements.

A type often favoured is the inverted **L**, but sometimes it is convenient to have it in the form of the letter **T**, in which case the down-lead must be taken from the middle of the horizontal arm.

Either form may be composed of one, two or more wires.

For wireless reception, one wire is quite efficient if length can be allowed. A single wire aerial is more efficient than a twin wire aerial if the wire lengths are the same. The aerial wire is connected directly to the tuning coil or inductance, and the two combined give the wavelength required. If the natural wavelength of the aerial wire is 200 metres then the tuning coil or inductance must have sufficient turns in the circuit to make

the deficiency up to the wavelength of the incoming signal, which we will assume to be 380 metres.

The detector or receiving set operates by reason of the difference of potential across the tuning coil, so that the more turns of wire we have in the circuit, the greater is the potential measured, and hence a stronger current obtained to operate the telephones.

It may appear from the above that the greater the inductance and the shorter the aerial wire, stronger signals will be received. However, a certain length of aerial wire must be used to catch the wireless waves; hence a compromise is made, and a length of 100 feet for the aerial should be aimed at.

Using twin wires each 100 feet long the amount of tuning coil required in the circuit is less, and a smaller potential is



FIG. 34.—Aerial System showing Roof Halyard.

measured, and consequently less current flows through the telephones.

Thus, for equal lengths of aerial the single wire is to be preferred electrically, apart from its mechanical simplicity and lightness.

When circumstances are such that 100 feet length cannot be obtained, but, say, 60 feet, then there is an advantage in the twin wire aerial. The combined inductance of the two wires will be approximately equal to that for one wire 100 feet long, therefore a similar number of turns in the tuning coil may still be employed in the circuit, and hence the same potential measured.

The twin wire type with spreaders is generally favoured by amateurs. Aim at a single wire.

The sausage or cage aerial consists of three or four wires equally spaced round a hoop or star frame, as shown in Fig. 33.

This type can be used as a single sausage or twin cage with end spreaders, similar to the twin wire type, but it is hardly

necessary for reception purposes, and is generally used at transmitting stations.

The most convenient forms of aerial systems are shown in Figs. 34, 35, 36.

The inverted L type, shown in Fig. 34, has a mast support at one end, and the aerial halyard is taken over the roof at the other end. The erection of this aerial is probably the simplest to carry out, as it is not necessary to climb on to the roof.



FIG. 35.—T Aerial.

One end of a ball of string is secured to a small weight, and the ball uncoiled. The weight is then thrown over the roof, from the road to the back of the house, so that passers-by are not interfered with.

The aerial halyard, which must be wire rope, can then be

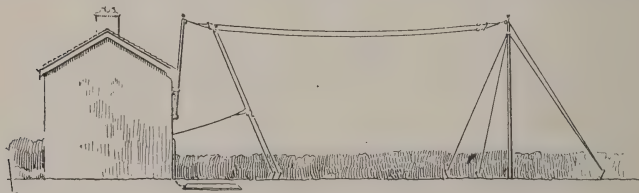


FIG. 36.—Aerial System showing Window Pole.

secured to the string, and pulled over the roof into position. Unfortunately, some roofs have fancy ridges, but the majority are quite suitable for the purpose.

Care must be taken to keep the string clear of joints in the ridge tiles; it can be moved or freed by shaking the string sharply. On no account pull hard on it. The aerial wire or spreader is suitably attached to the roof halyard, as described elsewhere, and hauled up into position. The end of the halyard, which is on the opposite side of the house, can then be secured to a stack pipe, or connected to a piece of wood placed across

the inside of a window frame similar to the arrangement shown in Fig. 37.

Frequently a chimney stack is suitably placed on the roof, and the boomerang method with the ball of string may be tried with advantage round the chimney stack.

One other method can be employed without going on the roof, and this is shown in Fig. 36.

Here a wood pole stands on the window sill, and is held by a special metal half-band, the pole is also lashed to a piece of

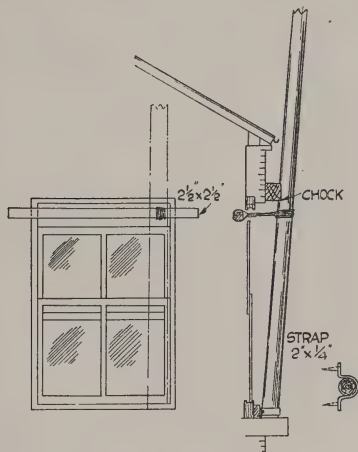


FIG. 37.—Method of Securing Window Pole.

timber, about $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches square, which is placed inside the window, and bears against the wall a foot each way.

In order to clear the gutter, a wood chock of suitable thickness is secured to the pole with wood screws.

The aerial pulley with halyard can be attached to the pole, as shown in Fig. 6.

The pole must not be longer than 18 feet, and less than 3 inches diameter at the butt and $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter at the top.

In any case, the length of pole projecting above the lashing must not be more than 12 feet, and at least 3 feet must exist between the metal band at base and the lashing. This pole will then support a single or twin wire aerial.

Height of Houses.—The question of height is rather decep-

tive, and it is often necessary to know the height to a certain window, gutter or ridge.

This may be easily estimated by the following method.

The average two-storey house is approximately 20 feet to the gutter, with a rise of about 12 feet to the ridge of the roof.

If one allows 9 feet for each storey in a house, plus 2 feet, together with the rise in the roof, the height of any house can be fairly estimated.

Again, the height and size of a chimney stack may be required; to avoid the use of mathematics count the layers of

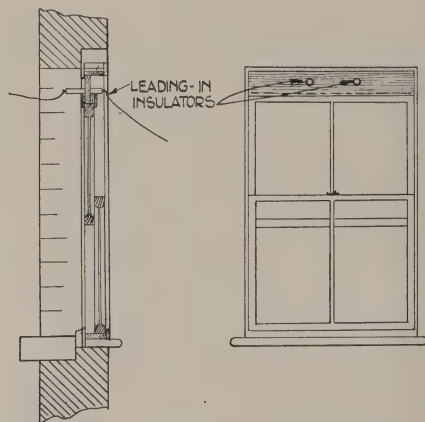


FIG. 38.—Lead-in for Ordinary Window.

bricks for height. These are 3 inches each together with one thickness of mortar, or, better still, check this by measuring the dimension for one brick with mortar at the base of the house.

For width: A brick lengthwise is 9 inches and endwise $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. They are always laid this way, hence a good idea of the width of a chimney can be formed by counting the number of bricks.

Sag in Aerial Wires.—A few precautions taken with regard to the aerial wire will considerably increase its length of life, and save the trouble and inconvenience of re-erecting the aerial should it carry away.

The aerial now allowed by the Postmaster-General has a maximum length of 100 feet (irrespective of the number of

wires), measured from the receiving instrument to the far insulator. This allows about 80 feet in the horizontal arm, plus about 15 feet of horizontal halyard wire at the leading-in end. Say 100 feet span altogether between attachments.

Under normal conditions the aerial may be pulled up to 1 foot sag, but in a gale or during cold and frosty weather 3 feet sag should be allowed.

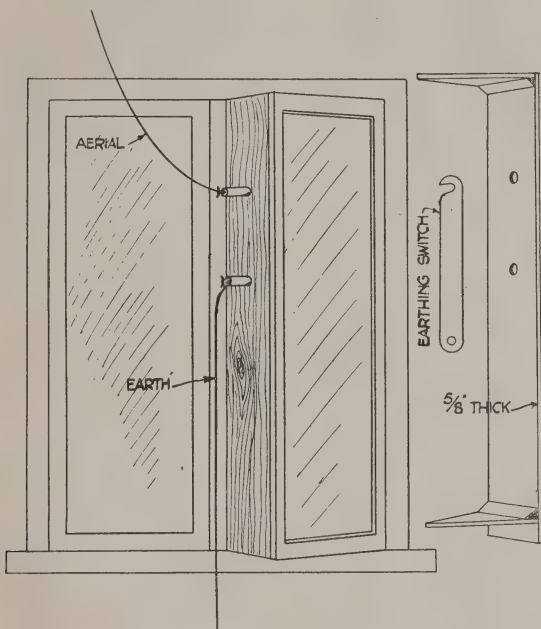


FIG. 39.—Lead-in, Casement Window.

If the aerial is erected at a temperature of 55° F., with 10 degrees of frost the temperature variation would be 33° F. This, in itself, can be neglected, as the contraction in length due to this change of temperature is small.

If, however, the wire becomes covered with ice or snow, it is stressed, due to the extra weight carried, and may collapse under the combined stresses due to contraction and weight of ice.

Remember contraction in length produces a decrease in the sag with an increase in tension or stress in the wire.

Generally, in the south of the British Isles the formation of ice on the aerial will be a rare occurrence, but in the northern area it must be expected during the winter season. It is therefore advisable to slack away the aerial when not in use, and especially in bad weather.

It is useful to note that insulators covered with ice cease to be such and become conductors. Hence you need not expect to receive signals under these conditions.

“Leading-in” Insulator.—Frequently a piece of insulated

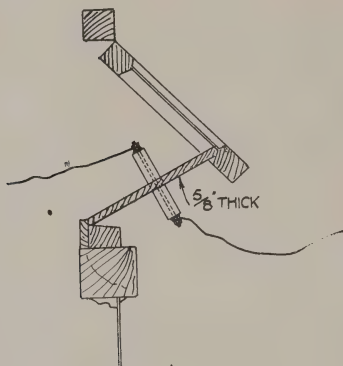


FIG. 40.—Lead-in, Fanlight.

flexible wire is used for “leading-in,” that is, connecting the aerial down-lead to the receiving apparatus.

In order to connect up the receiving set with the aerial, the leading-in wire can be brought through an open window, or through a tube of glass, ebonite or porcelain, inserted in the window frame or wall of the house.

Figs. 38, 39, 40 show arrangements for fixing leading-in insulators to various types of windows.

This fitting is easily removed, and when in place overcomes the disadvantage of an open window in bad weather or a hole through the wall.

Also, with this arrangement a second insulator can be fitted for the earth wire if desired, and an aerial earthing switch, consisting of a strip of brass or wire, attached to the outer side

of the fitting, or the aerial lead connected directly to the earth wire.

The "leading-in" insulator consists of a tube of porcelain, ebonite or glass, with a central brass rod, screwed and supplied with nuts at both ends (Fig. 41). The fitting for the insulator being of wood about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch thick, cut as shown in the illustrations to fit the window desired.

Frequently the leading-in wire may enter the house at a room where it is not convenient to listen-in. In this case it is the better plan to keep your receiving set near your lead-in and earth connection, and run insulated wires (ordinary bell wire will suffice) to your telephones, but one person must stand by and listen-in at the receiver to adjust it. A prevailing fashion is to run leads into several rooms, and have plug-in

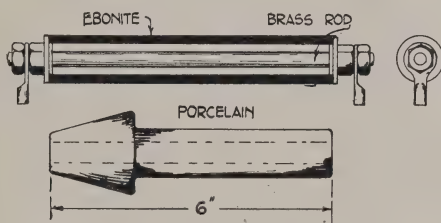


FIG. 41.—Leading-in Insulators.

sockets as might be used for electric lighting, but insulated wires must be employed, and where two or three sets of 'phones are used they should be connected in series, that is, positive to negative.

Earth.—The position of the receiving apparatus depends upon three factors:—

The leading-in of the aerial wire, the proximity of the earth system, and a suitable location for the convenience of the people listening. Generally a compromise between these three important considerations must be made.

The lead from instruments to earth should be as short as possible and arranged to give a rapid distribution to earth.

The amateur often reads that a good connection can be made to a water-pipe; this, however, has some drawbacks, although it has been successfully employed in the past, and will, no doubt, be frequently used in the future.

The disadvantages are:—

(a) It is difficult to solder on to a lead or iron pipe, especially when it contains cold water.

(b) Long-wandering leads are often necessary to reach the pipe, and these become a general nuisance through rooms and doors.

(c) The water-pipe unfortunately does not run to earth direct (except through the brickwork), but up into the attic where the cistern is located, from here it wanders away down to the ground, where the actual earthing may be considered to commence; this, however, does not give an earth system under the actual aerial, where it is advisable to place it.

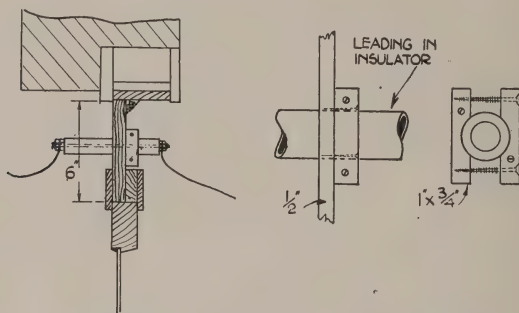


FIG. 42.—Method of Securing Leading-in Insulator.

(d) The earthing switch, if installed in the circuit, must be inside the house.

Note.—At some future date regulations or a fire insurance policy may demand an efficient aerial earthing switch outside the house.

Against these objectional points, one must say that a metal clip or copper wire seizing may be employed with success instead of soldering. Also, the apparatus may be installed near to the water-pipe system and portable leads for 'phones or loud speaker employed.

The water-pipe system is not the only means at the amateur's disposal.

An alternative method is an outside earth system, which can be arranged in quite a simple and inexpensive manner, by burying horizontally an earth plate at least 2 feet in the ground.

The plate should be as near as is possible to the leading-in wire and preferably under the aerial.

The earth plate may consist of galvanised wire netting, galvanised iron sheet, a zinc plate, or any conductor.

The wire netting should cover about 20 square feet of area, the sheet iron or zinc being about 6 feet \times 3 feet.

It is an advantage to join a few (four to six) copper wires (No. 16 S.W.G.) to the earth plate and spread them out radially.

If the leading-in fitting with two insulators, shown in Fig. 39, is used, the earth wire may be brought down the side of the house to the earth plate.

A good plan is to make this earth lead of three strands of

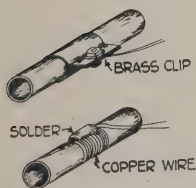


FIG. 43.—Earth Connection to Water-pipe.

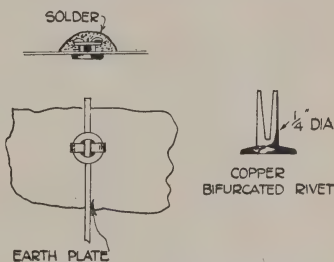


FIG. 44.—Earth Plate Connection.

No. 16 S.W.G. copper wire, stranded together, and spread them out so that they meet the plate at three different points.

The wires should then be riveted to the plate with bifurcated copper rivets and washers (Fig. 44), and then the whole well soldered.

The radial wires from the earth plate must be treated in a similar manner at their connections.

One essential point must not be overlooked. The earth system in very dry weather requires moisture, so that the ground should be watered in the vicinity of the earth plate.

Insulators.—Insulators are designed to meet three conditions :—

- (a) To give mechanical strength.
- (b) To resist electrical pressure.
- (c) To direct rain-water or moisture away from the wires attached to them.

In receiving aerials insulators are not subjected to great mechanical and electrical stresses; however, the correct type should be chosen for the duties they have to perform.

In the aerial wire their principal function is to resist electrical pressure. Their insulation properties are generally ample for this in dry weather, but with rain or moisture, they may have a certain amount of surface leakage, and it is therefore important to insert those which possess a good drip point.

To overcome surface leakage in damp weather two or more insulators are connected in series.

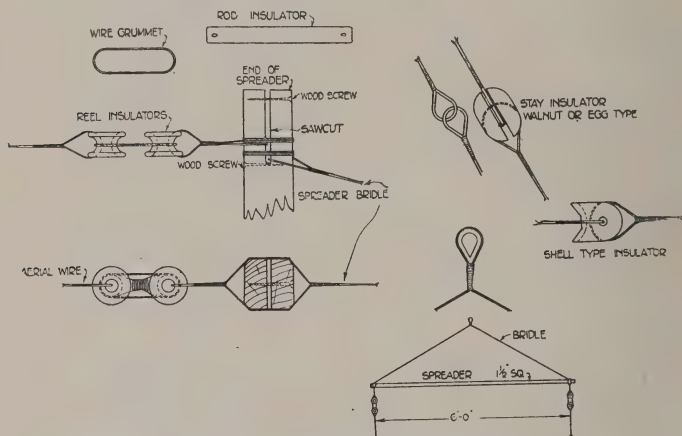


FIG. 45.—Insulators and Spreader.

Fig. 45 shows the reel type attached at the end of a spreader, also the shell type.

Stay insulators should be similar to the one shown in Fig. 45, called the egg or walnut type.

The eyes in each portion of the stay wire embrace each other, and should the insulator break the stay does not part and allow the mast to collapse.

Never use a strain or rod insulator in mast stays.

Roof Attachments.—To return again to the house as an aerial support is, perhaps, to look for trouble, but as so many amateurs have no other alternative, a few suggestions are put forward and illustrated.

The fixing of a suitable pole on the roof of a building is one of the difficult problems which confront the amateur.

Unfortunately there are no simple devices which can be followed, so that the only course left open is to face the matter properly and use orthodox methods in order to get on to the roof.

A workman employs two ladders, one by which he climbs to the gutter, and with the other placed on the slope of the roof he reaches the desired position.

It is advisable to have wood chocks, at the upper end of the roof ladder, in order to obtain a grip on the roof ridge.

Generally, it is difficult to obtain the necessary ladders, so

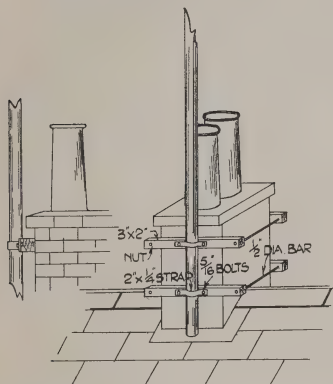


FIG. 46.—Method of Securing Pole to Chimney-stack.

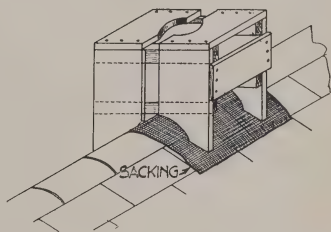


FIG. 47.—Ridge Housing, Box Type.

that it is by far the better and safer plan to get a builder to carry out the work, having obtained the owner's consent.

If it is possible to reach the roof, the best plan is to secure the pole to a chimney-stack (see Fig. 46).

It is advisable to make the fittings strong and secure, so that they will stand without attention for some considerable time.

It may be useful to know that the ordinary chimney-stack cannot be encircled by the arm; if, however, it is low, work can be carried out between the chimney pots in order to pass the connecting pieces round.

A simple plan is to use a piece of string or cord weighted at the end, and swing this round the stack (keep clear of its return). A wire lashing or connection for the pole may then be passed round.

When it is necessary to mount the pole to a chimney-stack, all stays and halyards, together with seizing, must be of wire, as there may be a considerable amount of heat emitted from the chimney, which will in time destroy any ropes made of hemp or other similar substance.

Erection of the Aerial.—The first consideration when erecting an aerial is to decide on the type to suit your local surroundings and requirements.

It is advisable to get above the roofs of houses, away from trees or other surrounding objects, to prevent screening effects ; but in most cases you are given no choice of site, so that you need only be concerned with regard to the type and possible attachments.

Various types of masts have been given, and also attachments to the house, so, assuming these decided upon and erected, the next thing is to prepare your aerial wire, insulators, spreaders, etc.

First, you must ascertain the length between attachments, then allow for the length of the halyard horizontally, spreaders, insulators, etc.

If possible, lay the complete aerial out on the ground between attachments, and secure one end of the aerial wire to the insulators at the far end of the aerial, and unroll the coil along the ground.

At the leading-in end the aerial wires should be temporarily secured with a piece of string, and the complete aerial hauled up to test its correct length, and also the possible length of down leads. Adjust the aerial wire at the leading-in end as necessary, and make it secure to the spreader insulators.

The aerial may again be hauled into position, and the end of the down-lead cut to length and soldered to the connection thimble of the leading-in insulator. Always make the length of aerial from leading-in insulator to far end one continuous length of wire. The general arrangement of the aerial wire and its connections is shown in Figs. 33, 45, 50.

When using twin wires, bring both wires to the leading-in insulator. They may be tied together anywhere in the downlead.

A saw-cut at either end of the spreader is a simple device, and two screws are inserted, one to prevent splitting at the saw-cut, while the other locks the seizing.

The screws should be brass, so that they can easily be removed when necessary ; iron screws will rust in, and be difficult to extract.

The aerial insulators are connected by a wire grummet, No. 16 S.W.G. copper wire being quite serviceable, and the grummet seized together in the middle after the insulators are inserted, to hold them securely in position.

The downlead end of the aerial should be kept well away from the house, and it is often a good plan to pull it away with tail wires attached to stakes in the ground. The leading-in wire is then brought to its insulator at an angle, and not parallel with the wall, which is bad.

Aerial Details.—Several details of the aerial have already been described under other headings, so that brief reference to them need only be made here.

Spreader.—This usually consists of an ash spar for strength and lightness and is about 6 feet long, an ordinary piece of wood, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches square at the centre and tapered to an inch each end, may be used; or a stout bamboo pole.

Fig. 45 shows the general arrangement of the spreader with the bridle; while Fig. 50 gives an aerial with spreaders attached and method of arranging for the downlead in a T aerial.

Should a cage aerial be employed the wires may be separated with wood hoops spaced about 50 feet apart. A child's hoop serves the purpose well, or two pieces of bamboo cane may be seized together in the form of a cross as shown in Fig. 33.

The downlead with tail wire, and method of taking the aerial wire to leading-in insulator are detailed in Fig. 50. The tail wire may be a spare piece of aerial or stout string; do not make it too tight, or you will decrease the height of your aerial.

The actual leading-in wire may be fairly slack, so as not to strain the leading-in insulator and fitting.

When uncoiling the aerial wire it is a good plan to fasten one end to a firm object, and then uncoil the wire by rolling the coil along the ground like a hoop; this prevents kinks forming in the wire. Should the wire break at any time, and need joining, the two ends should be seized together and well soldered.

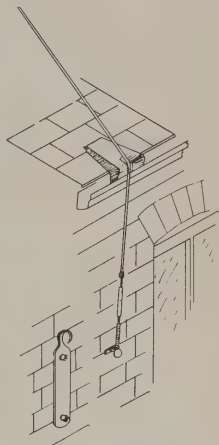


FIG. 48.—Wall Connections for Stay or Halyard.

The aerial halyard block, or pulley, should be of galvanised iron. The wheel is called a sheave, and the complete fitting a block.

With each type of mast the method of attaching the halyard block is shown.

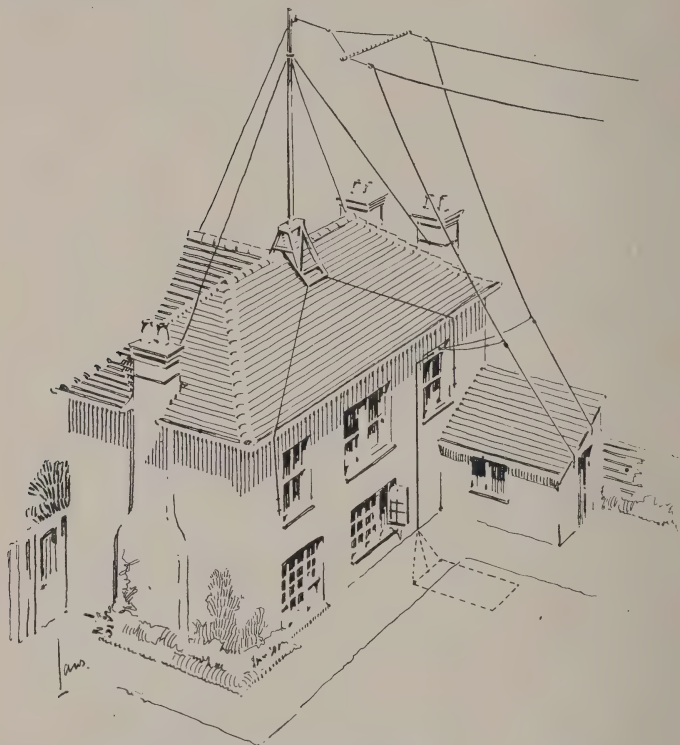


FIG. 49.—General View, Roof Housing and Aerial.

The halyards and various insulators are dealt with under their respective headings.

All shackles should be of galvanised iron. They run in sizes termed $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch, $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch, $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch, etc., which is the diameter of the metal of which it is formed ; $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch shackles are a handy size to use.

Thimbles are of galvanised iron and run in sizes, $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch, 1-inch, $1\frac{1}{4}$ -inch, etc. These dimensions are the circumference of the rope they suit.

Convenient sizes for use are $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch and 1-inch, but it is necessary to be able to pass a $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch shackle through them.

It is advisable to use thimbles at every bend in a wire.

Soldering.—Soldering consists of two classes, hard and soft.

Soft soldering is the method generally employed for making electrical connections.

This again is sub-divided into two classes, soft and hard, which depends upon the substances to be joined.

Solder is composed of tin and lead in various proportions, the

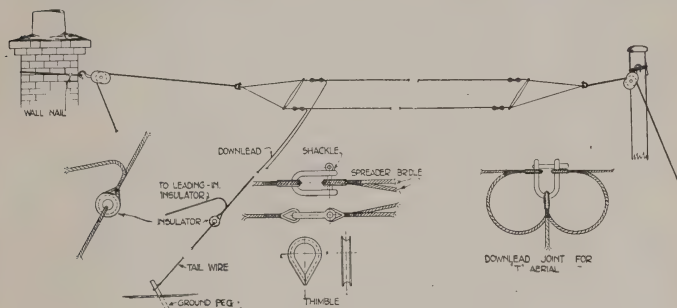


FIG. 50.—General Details of Aerial.

more tin the higher the melting point, and stronger joint, and *vice versa*.

It naturally follows that for earth wire connections to lead pipes the softest solder must be used. The proportions commonly used by plumbers are two of lead and one of tin, or equal parts of each.

For copper wire connections to brass terminals, two of tin and one of lead.

The ironmonger, as a rule, only keeps two classes in the proportions two tin and one lead, and one to one, known as hard and soft respectively.

Use hard for brass, iron and copper work, and soft for lead pipes.

Several factors constitute a good soldering job: cleanness of work, work sufficiently warm, soldering iron or bolt properly tinned, and correct flux used.

The fluxes for soldering are as follows :—

Iron or steel	Borax or sal ammoniac.
Tinned iron	Resin, zinc chloride.
Copper, brass	„ „ „
Zinc	Zinc chloride.
Lead	Tallow or resin.
Lead and tin pipes. . . .	Resin and sweet oil.

Compounds can be bought for general service work, such as Fluxite.

For electrical connections the use of acid or zinc chloride is avoided, resin being the principal flux.

The work to be soldered must be thoroughly scraped or cleaned and free from grease. Do not wipe your fingers over

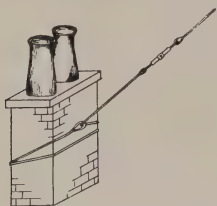


FIG. 51.—Stay Attachment to Chimney-stack.

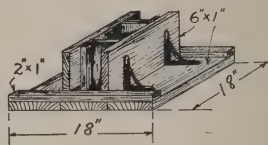


FIG. 52.—Pole Housing for Flat Roof.

the surface. The point of the soldering iron must also be cleaned (by filing it bright) and the iron heated (never let it get red hot). When the iron is of sufficient temperature to melt the solder, clean the point again with a file, and first dip it into the flux, and then on to the solder, when, if properly done, a bead of solder will remain on it; with a clean piece of rag wipe this bead over the surface. The point is then tinned. Always keep the iron well hot and do not walk about with it. Between each operation it should be replaced in the flame or other heating apparatus, and when possible keep the tinned point away from the smoke of the flame or fire.

The two surfaces to be joined together are scraped or rubbed bright with emery paper, touched with the soldering flux, and then tinned. A bead of solder on the hot iron being sufficient for this purpose.

The iron is again heated and a little solder melted over the joint, the heat of the iron causing it to run.

It is often convenient to hold the work down with the hot

iron, in which case you must wait a little while for the iron to cool and the solder to set.

When soldering on to a lead water-pipe, first free it from water, and scrape a portion clean. A little flux can be applied over this surface with a clean rag and a coating of solder given.

Clean the earth wire, tin its end, and make your connection by means of a hot iron and solder, care being taken not to melt the pipe.

A method often employed with lead pipes is to bind copper wire round the pipe and solder your connection to this wire. Damage to the lead pipe with the hot iron is then prevented.

Never make your earth connection to the water-tap. This is fitted with a leather washer or a red-lead joint, and has not a good metal contact.

FRAME AERIALS

One type of aerial used when ground space or roof attachments are not available is called a frame aerial.

It is portable and convenient to use in residential flats, provided that for the weaker signals a multi-valve set is employed.

Two useful types are shown in Fig. 53. Type (a) consists of a square frame composed of boards $\frac{1}{2}$ inch by about 6 inches, the frame being from 4 feet to 6 feet square. Type (b) is a simple star.

Frame aerials give the best signals when set in the plane of the station being received, and therefore they are made to revolve about the base, which must be of ample dimensions to obtain rigidity.

This feature is made use of in direction-finding stations.

Generally, the position of the transmitting or broadcasting station is known, in which case the frame aerial is set in the plane of this direction.

The aerial wire used may be insulated wire, or bare copper wire wound on insulating tape, paraffin wax or shellac varnish. Another method is to use small reel insulators, attached with screws as shown in type (b).

The aerial wire is sometimes wound with two or more independent coils; these are connected by a suitable switch, and thus a change of wavelength can be effected.

The frame aerial chart will be found very useful in cases where it is desired to design frame aerials for reception of

definite wavelengths. The chart is due to A. S. Blatterman, and was published in the *Journal of the Franklin Institute*. Let us suppose that we wish to know the best combination of size of frame, number of turns, and spacing for reception on

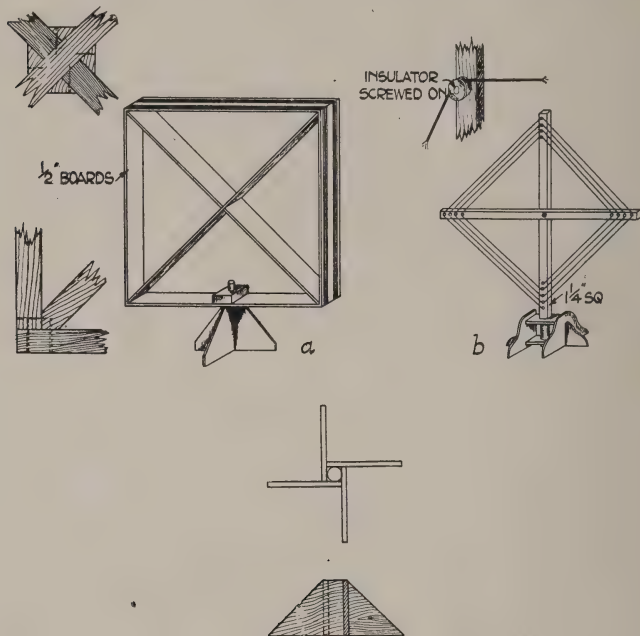


FIG. 53.—Frame Aerials.

2,500 metres. Reference to the lower portion of the chart will show the following :—

Size of Loop.	No. of Turns.	Spacing.
4 feet.	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ inch.
6 feet.	40	$\frac{7}{16}$ inch.
10 feet.	23	$\frac{3}{4}$ inch.

Next, referring to the top portion of the chart, we find that the all-important "reception factor" for each of the above sizes of loop is as follows:—

Size of Loop.	Reception Factor.
4 feet.	6,400
6 feet.	9,300
10 feet.	8,600

which shows that to receive a 2,500-metre wave, a 6-foot loop with forty turns $\frac{7}{16}$ inch apart is the most efficient of the examples given.

This requires a large wide frame, but it should be noted

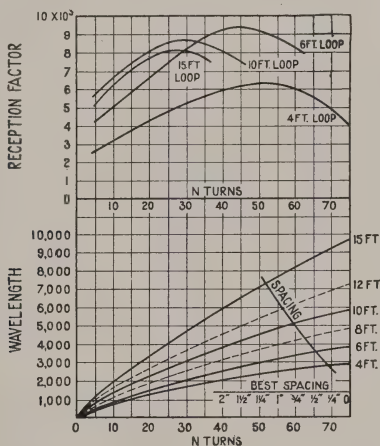


FIG. 54.—Frame Aerial Chart.

that these dimensions are not *essential*. They are, however, the *best* for 2,500 metres.

For the purpose of tuning a condenser may be used in conjunction with a frame, but the maximum capacity of this should not exceed .001 microfarad.

For wavelengths below those given on the accompanying chart, it is best to find the exact number of turns from experi-

ment rather than calculation, as the exact spacing of the turns will be an important factor, and the number of turns so few that it is very little trouble to the experimenter to wind on a suitable number to suit his own purpose.

A frame aerial and the manipulation of a multi-valve set may be a little beyond the ability of the novice in wireless reception, but when the transmitting station is not more than a few miles away an indoor aerial may be usefully employed with a single-valve set (see table in Chapter V.).

This consists of a wire or wires suspended across a room,

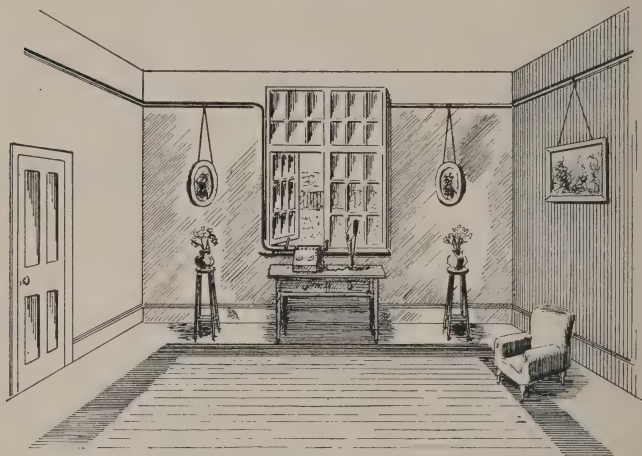


FIG. 55.—Aerial round Picture Rail, see Fig. 56.

round the picture rail or in the attic. It is advisable to carry out an experiment or two before finally securing them to see which method suits your conditions best. Taking wires stretched across the room first. They should lie in the direction of the receiving station, and if the room is small two or three should be hung parallel to each other about 4 to 6 feet apart.

The ends of each wire are finished off at insulators attached to the wall or picture rail, a download for each wire brought from one end only, similar to the inverted L type, and connected to the receiver. An earth connection is made in the usual way. The experiment in this case consists in chang-

ing the number of parallel wires used by disconnecting at the down-lead.

A hidden aerial may be employed by taking a good insulated wire round the picture rail of the room (Fig. 55). One end can be secured with a staple, care being taken to completely insulate the bare wire showing at the end. It may be bent up a little into space, so that it does not touch anything. The wire is now carried along the picture rail round the room, and secured at intervals by staples. Do not damage the insulation when

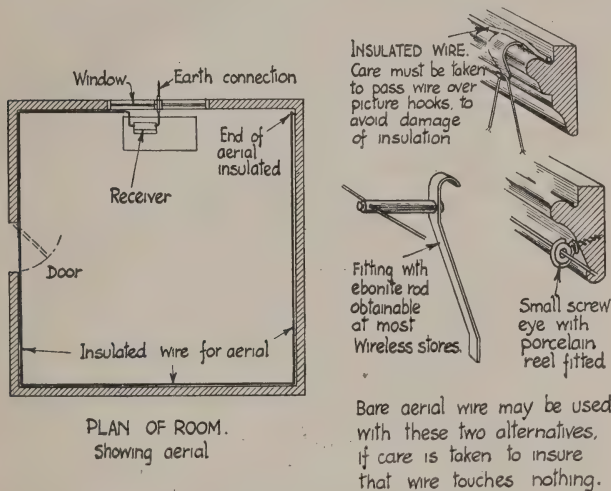


FIG. 56.—Indoor Aerial Details.

securing the wire. When the wire has made a circuit of the room, lead it down to the receiving set and attach your earth connection.

A vertical aerial will give better results, so that a wire may be tried running from the loft, secured to the wall, and brought down the stairs. If well insulated the wire may be hidden and tucked away out of sight. It is not essential for it to be exactly vertical. An insulated wire can easily be secured in the upper part of the house and allowed to wander down to the receiver for this experiment, but valve sets will be necessary unless you are within a mile or two of the transmitting station.

Still another form of indoor aerial may be employed, and

that is a miniature twin wire aerial with spreaders in the loft. The vertical down-lead will greatly assist your strength of signals, but do not forget your earth connection.

Cases are known where these methods are successfully employed, and in fact most wireless demonstrations given in

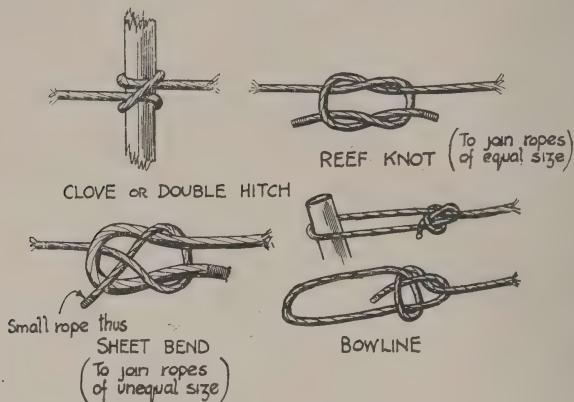


FIG. 57.—Useful Knots.

establishments dealing in wireless equipment are operated by these methods. Therefore when purchasing a set at such an establishment enquire about their aerial; it may suit your purpose. A last word: whatever method is used for an indoor aerial, good insulation and earth system are essential, together with the direction of the aerial, if possible.

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